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ABSTRACT

This report documents a broad category of information concerning the first five years of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Included in the report are the following chapters: (1) concept and practice in non-western area studies, (2) the language and area centers program, (3) impact of the centers program, (4) outlook for the program, and (5) a selected bibliography. Extensive information on government policy, uncommonly-taught language programs, the Chicago Seminar of the Committee on Summer Programs, enrollment data, and government funding is provided in the appendixes. (RL)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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NDEA
Language and Area Centers

A Report on the First 5 Years

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National Defense Education Act of 1958, as Amended

Sec. 601(a) The Commissioner is authorized to arrange through contracts with institutions of higher education for the establishment and operation by them, during the period beginning July 1, 1958, and ending with the close of June 30, 1965, of centers for the teaching of any modern foreign language with respect to which the Commissioner determines (1) that individuals trained in such language are needed by the Federal Government, or by business, industry, or education in the United States, and (2) that adequate instruction in such language is not readily available in the United States. Any such contract may provide for instruction not only in such modern foreign language but also in other fields needed to provide a full understanding of the areas, regions, or countries in which such language is commonly used, to the extent adequate instruction in such fields is not readily available, including fields such as history, political science, linguistics, economics, sociology, geography, and anthropology. Any such contract may cover not more than 50 per centum of the cost of the establishment and operation of the center with respect to which it is made, including the cost of grants to the staff for travel in the foreign areas, regions, or countries with which the subject matter of the field or fields in which they are or will be working is concerned and the cost of travel of foreign scholars to such centers to teach or assist in teaching therein and the cost of their return, and shall be made on such conditions as the Commissioner finds necessary to carry out the purposes of this section.

Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act of 1961

SEC. 102(b) In furtherance of the purposes of this Act, the President is further authorized to provide for—

* * * * *

(6) promoting modern foreign language training and area studies in United States schools, colleges, and universities by supporting visits and study in foreign countries by teachers and prospective teachers in such schools, colleges, and universities for the purpose of improving their skill in languages and their knowledge of the culture of the people of those countries, and by financing visits by teachers from those countries to the United States for the purpose of participating in foreign language training and area studies in United States schools, colleges, and universities.

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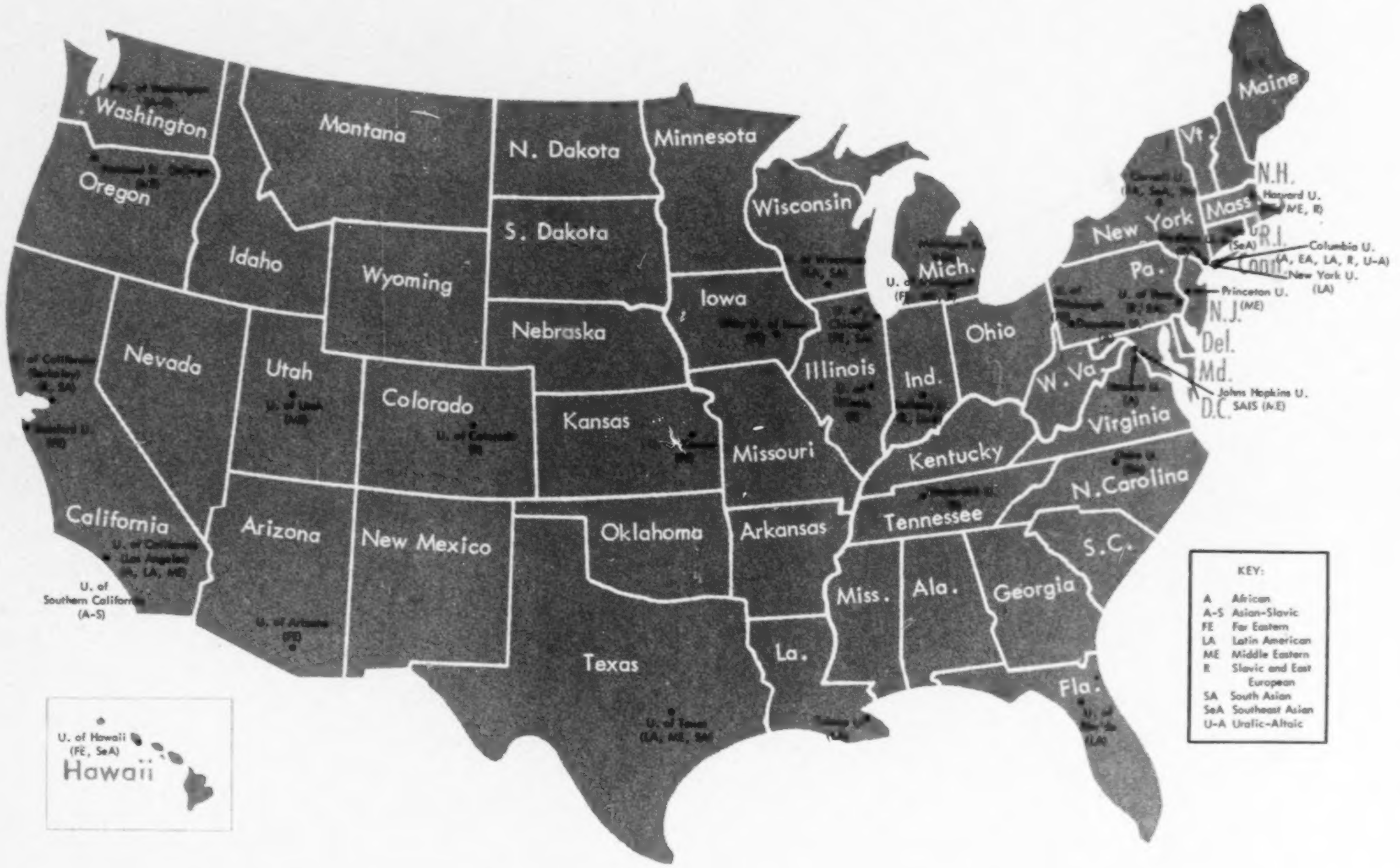
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(LA)
Princeton U.
N.J. (ME)
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John Hopkins U.
SAIS (ME)
D.C.
New York
Pa.
Ohio
W. Va.
Virginia
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N. Carolina
S.C.
Georgia
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Ala.
Miss.
Tennessee
Kentucky
Ind.
Illinois
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Wisconsin
Minnesota
Iowa
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Oklahoma
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S. Dakota
N. Dakota
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Arizona
Utah
Idaho
Nevada
Washington
Oregon
California
U. of
Southern California
(A-S)
U. of Hawaii
(FE, SeA)
Hawaii
KEY:
A African
A-S Asian-Slavic
FE Far Eastern
LA Latin American
ME Middle Eastern
R Slavic and East European
SA South Asian
SeA Southeast Asian
U-A Uralic-Altaic

Introduction

IN RECENT YEARS American higher education, like the society of which it is a part, has come to realize that non-Western areas have become as important as Europe once was to an understanding of the cultural, economic, and political developments that affect our future.

Already the movement in non-Western studies has inspired many graduate schools and a significant number of liberal arts colleges to reassess student interests and faculty skills, modify curriculums, shift library acquisition policies, emphasize research and study abroad, and drastically alter their attitudes toward the uncommon[1] modern languages of the world. The last of these changes is perhaps the most important, for the uncommon languages are the essential means by which we learn to understand those parts of the world we have hitherto neglected.

Although the universities made these changes on their own initiative, they were substantially aided by support from foundations and, during the last 5 years, from the Federal Government. The principal contribution of the latter has been made under title VI of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA) which encourages and supports language development in a variety of ways. Section 601(a) authorizes the U.S. Commissioner of Education to arrange, on a matching fund basis, for the establishment and operation of language and area centers by means of contracts with institutions of higher education. It is the intent of the Act that such support, judiciously administered in keeping with the objectives and wishes of the academic community, should assist institutions in safeguarding the accomplishments they had made and at the same time encourage them to improve instruction in the uncommon modern languages.

While title VI is generally concerned with language development, section 601(a) also authorizes support for instruction in area studies, including such academic disciplines as history, anthropology, geography, political science, sociology, linguistics, and economics, all of which were properly considered germane to language development. Thus language *and* area studies were combined in the Act, as indeed they already were in the curriculums of those few universities which offered instruction in the uncommon languages prior to its passage. With the support afforded under title VI, the NDEA language and area centers program has contributed strength and momentum to the movement in non-Western studies. Under NDEA, area studies, as they were originally called, soon came to be known as language and area studies, emphasizing the relationship between the two but at the same time indicating the basic role that language was to play in the development of non-Western studies.

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[1] The term "uncommon" is used throughout to refer to those languages in which instruction is not readily available throughout American higher education.

What the Federal Government has contributed to the improvement of language and area studies is reported in the following pages. But, while the report deals specifically with the activities undertaken with Federal funds, it cannot but be concerned also with the larger role of language and area studies in higher education. Since the NDEA program is only one element among many in this nationwide movement, it can scarcely be isolated from other related developments. Nor would it be desirable to do this. Such a separation would ignore other important contributions to the advance of language and area studies and at the same time needlessly minimize the indirect stimulus NDEA has given to educational effort and thought.

The financial resources allotted to the language and area centers program, as authorized under title VI, were fully committed in fiscal year 1962, about halfway through the 7 years for which support has been authorized. The Federal funds available under the title VI appropriation have been insufficient to meet the expanding needs of the language and area centers program since that time.

Nevertheless, two fundamental conclusions have become readily apparent. First, as this report clearly shows, non-Western studies have received material assistance under NDEA without which the present high level of scholarly activity at 55 language and area centers would not have been possible and without which the increase in manpower trained in modern foreign languages would not have been effected.

Second, all this has been accomplished without suggestion of Federal interference. Of particular relevance here is the statement (see app. B) made by the 53 representatives of the 33 colleges and universities which had, by the fall of 1962, obtained Federal support for language and area centers. One part of this statement, which constitutes perhaps the most accurate summation yet made of operations during the first years of the program, underscores the harmonious relationship existing between these universities and the Federal Government in the following passage:

> Every dollar of federal money that supports the centers is matched by a dollar of university funds; in fact, universities have spent considerably more than the matching requirement. In this way, government funds have stimulated the universities to expand their own activities and at the same time have enabled the universities to accomplish a task wholly beyond their own resources. Thanks to the statesmanlike and educationally informed way in which Title VI of the Act has been administered by the Language Development Branch, government funds have made it possible for the universities to make a major contribution to the nation's language resources while preserving their own freedom of action and maintaining their own distinctive character.

Earlier in 1962, Logan Wilson, president of the American Council on Education, had come to a similar conclusion as evidenced by his statement that "the Federal Government has provided its share of the financing of language and area centers without impairing the autonomy of the institutions receiving the funds; in short, Federal funds have been given without Federal control."

In its assessment of the impact of NDEA on non-Western studies this report has drawn heavily on the considerable body of literature now available on this subject. The publications listed in the bibliography (see pp. 64–67) indicate the scope of this material, the progressive development of the movement since the early area studies of the 1920's and 1930's, and something of the outlook for future non-Western language and area studies.

The report has drawn in particular on the 1960–61 inventory of NDEA language and area centers reported by Joseph Axelrod and Donald N. Bigelow in *Resources for Language and Area Studies,* published by the American Council on Education, and on three publications by the U.S. Office of Education: the *Report on the National Defense Education Act: Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1959;* the *Report on the National Defense Education Act: Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1960;* and the *Report on the National Defense Education Act: Fiscal Years 1961 and 1962.*

The present report covers the first 5 years of the NDEA language and area centers program, although for the fifth year (1963–64) some of the data are based on advance estimates rather than on final reports. The first 5 years of operation do not coincide with the first

5 years of NDEA. Since the original appropriations were made during the academic year 1958–59, it was not until the academic year 1959–60 that the first 19 centers began receiving Federal support. This time lag resulted in what is known as forward financing (by which funds appropriated in one year are committed in advance and spent on activities actually carried out in the next), and thus, when the Act was subsequently extended, first for 2 years (to June 1964) and later for 1 more year (to June 1965), the language and area centers program was automatically extended through the academic year 1965–66.

Concept and Practice in Non-Western Area Studies

THE VIGOROUS PURSUIT of non-Western studies in our colleges and universities began in the post-World War II period, during which the involvement of the United States in global affairs reached a new level of intensity and impressed itself more clearly on the consciousness of most Americans. It was no coincidence that the resulting academic absorption in non-Western subject matter became identified with the area studies approach to the curriculum. The area approach—although developed before 1941—had first been widely adopted in wartime in response to a sudden realization of the need for training in the understanding of alien societies and cultures, a need that, under the circumstances, could be met only by combining rare skills from among several disciplines. Similar postwar needs, which found the country scarcely better prepared, suggested a continuation of the approach that had lately revealed such promise.

Academic Antecedents of Area Studies

The constituent elements of the area study concept as it relates to NDEA—non-Western emphasis, application of varied disciplinary skills, contemporary focus, concern for total societies and cultures, field study, and language proficiency (the most important postwar addition to the concept)—all have their antecedents in American academic tradition.

Non-Western studies [2] have long had scholarly devotees. Sinologists, Indologists (or Sanskritists), and Arabists have always played a role in the academic world. They have traditionally been the scholars who studied, partly out of interest and partly for lack of colleagues, the totality of those cultures and civilizations. Stemming, however, largely from the fields of classical language and literature, archaeology, and the history of art or religion, they did not typically apply the insights of social science or manifest the interest in contemporary developments which have come to be associated with area studies. And they were usually not concerned with the modern languages spoken in their areas.

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[2] Defined as including Latin America and Eastern Europe because these areas share the contemporary problems of social and economic development of the geographically non-Western world and because they have resided outside the mainstream of American academic attention.

A parallel case is that of the classicists, long a mainstay of the curriculum of American higher education. Likewise noncontemporary in focus but not of course associated with the non-Western world, classicists have commonly embraced the whole of a civilization as their subject. This they did before the present-day departments had fully established themselves and thus accomplished the seemingly definitive division of knowledge along disciplinary lines. Such specialists necessarily embodied classical language proficiency in their approach, either because their subjects were literary or because they required access to sources in the so-called exotic languages. Field study was often just as necessary, most obviously so in the case of archaeology; but it was never contemporary in emphasis and thus seldom involved an encounter with either a modern society or its languages.

With the emergence of anthropology, both field study and language skill received new impetus. Anthropology achieved recognition as an academic discipline during the last part of the 19th century and acquired departmental status on many campuses in the 20th. It became *par excellence* the exponent of fieldwork and oral communication. Furthermore, many of its favorite topics for investigation were located in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Still, anthropology was only secondarily concerned with modern industrial societies and cultures and usually concentrated on primitive groups remote from the contemporary global arena.

This concentration, as it manifested itself in anthropological study of the American Indians, had an additional significance for the subsequent emergence of language and area studies. For the resulting attention to Indian dialects gave rise to an American school of structural linguistics which has played a central role in the postwar flowering of language learning in the context of non-Western studies.

Such fields as comparative government, international relations, and the economics of foreign trade were accustomed, on the other hand, to concentrate on contemporary subjects, but paid relatively little attention to the non-Western world. And language teachers, though manifestly concerned with proficiency in their subject, also gave the bulk of their attention to the European or "common" languages: Latin, French, German, Spanish, and Italian.

Perhaps the most pointed antecedents of all were the handful of area programs which existed before World War II. One or two modest programs started as early as the World War I era, with Latin

America the most prominent area of study. By the early 1930's, however, there were distinctive programs of area research, notably those originated by W. Norman Brown (University of Pennsylvania) on South Asia, Raymond A. Kennedy (Yale University) on Southeast Asia, and Philip K. Hitti (Princeton University) on the Middle East. These and others that evolved before World War II typified the aim of integrating disciplinary viewpoints to provide more comprehensive understanding of non-Western regions or localities.

Area Studies in the Postwar Curriculum

Despite the many precedents for the constituent elements of the area approach, the emergence of area studies on a broad scale in the postwar period was seen as a challenge to traditional departmental organization. Certain of the more enthusiastic proponents of area studies regarded the new fashion as a replacement for the accepted disciplines, a view which evoked a correspondingly extreme reaction among traditionalists. The ensuing debate over the validity and merits of the area approach, even now not fully resolved in the academic community, tended, therefore, to be irrelevant to the actual area programs that finally found their place in the major universities. For the more moderate proponents of area studies saw in the programs they initiated merely a device for supplementing departmental offerings and making a comprehensive attack on hitherto neglected non-Western subject matter in such a manner as to repair existing shortcomings as rapidly and easily as possible.

These moderates pointed out that the disciplines, the so-called "vertical pillars of knowledge," left "twilight zones and vales of complete ignorance" between them. Area focus, said Robert B. Hall, chairman of the Committee on World Area Research, would "not only help to fill the now unknown interstices, but also bring about an exchange of the particular knowledge and peculiar insights of the different disciplines, to the general enrichment of research." When it was conceded that area work lacked the "hard core" and specific methodology by which it could challenge the disciplines on their own ground, it became apparent that the real argument turned neither on the appropriate way of carving up knowledge nor on the presumed benefits in the realm of research. Rather, the important question concerned the manner in which departments could be interrelated within a university structure to produce a set of integrated course offerings focusing on a specific world region.

The area programs which emerged in the late 1940's and 1950's represented varying patterns of organization. The most rudimentary type was a collection of courses bearing on a particular world area and already offered in the various departments. From within the elaborate curriculums of the larger universities it was often easy to obtain professors from as many as half a dozen departments whose courses dealt in whole or in part with a single global area. In such cases, there might be a single interested faculty member responsible for whatever integration and student guidance were provided. Or there might be a more formal structuring, with a committee representing and mediating among the several disciplines. But such combinations of existing courses seldom achieved more than separate listings by world area in the institution's catalog: the possibility of developing any systematic or professional approach to area studies was usually ignored.

Other area programs, some dating from the prewar period, were aimed primarily at undergraduates and took the form of an integrated course on a non-Western area—a single major country such as India or China, or a world region as large as Asia. Among the better known examples that could be cited are the University of Chicago program in non-Western civilizations and the University of Michigan course on Asia for undergraduates. Such courses would be taught by teams of faculty members from the various disciplines which happened to be represented. They necessitated coordination, often to the extent of evolving collaborative textbooks and other course materials, and were frequently offered with great enthusiasm by the instructors who taught them.

Still another version of the area approach was the formation of separate institutes or "centers" to deal with one or another world area, as exemplified by the several institutes at Columbia University. A large measure of administrative autonomy was necessary to enable a director and his staff to attain a high level of research and graduate instruction. The faculty had to be cohesive and distinguished enough to attract students. Such programs did not ordinarily compete in any functional way with the academic departments. On the contrary, except for a few purely research centers, the faculty and students customarily maintained their departmental ties However, this type of structure permitted a certain amount of influence on faculty recruitment so that area gaps might also be considered when departmental vacancies were being filled. As this system gradually took hold, faculty appointments became joint ventures and students had increasingly to fulfill the requirements of both the department and the area center.

A final organizational form, more conventional in the sense that most programs so organized were of long standing, was the department built around an area focus, such as the Department of Oriental Studies at Princeton University or the Department of Near Eastern Studies at the University of Michigan. In such cases historians and, more rarely, social scientists might be found along with language and literature specialists in a single department functioning in the same manner as a department consisting of a homogeneous discipline. Comparatively few new programs copied this arrangement, but some of the older ones which had proved workable on this basis retained the departmental form.

All of these organizational devices, along with further variants, served the purpose of area studies through the 1950's. During this decade several trends were apparent. A growing body of faculty members became identified with the various centers of non-Western studies, fostering a distinctive professional focus of both research and instruction but also maintaining the traditional disciplinary credentials and enjoying equality of status in the academic community. Programs of study, particularly for higher degrees, grew noticeably longer as students had to satisfy both departmental and area requirements while at the same time acquiring the language skills enabling them to work in their area effectively. The area concept became more firmly rooted in the curriculum of higher education as the high caliber of its results gradually overcame the residual opposition to any crossing of departmental lines.

Throughout this period and into the 1960's, the granting of degrees was increasingly acknowledged to be a departmental prerogative. Except for the so-called area departments, which retained their regular degree-granting functions, most area studies programs deferred to the disciplines on this score, and the area Ph. D. almost disappeared. While the A.B. and M.A. in area fields remained more common, even at these levels the area programs contented themselves more often than not with the maintenance of the requirements for an area specialization within the framework of a degree in one of the disciplines. The balance that was being struck in this respect satisfied all concerned, especially as it also simplified the problem of placement for graduates who might otherwise have been handicapped by an unconventional, nondepartmental degree.

If any objection to the area concept was left unanswered, it concerned sources of funds. The traditionalists' initial fear that area programs would drain budgetary support away from the departments abated in the face of strong foundation support for non-Western studies. Although the departments might envy the area centers such support, university funds themselves were not diverted to any unreasonable extent. Indeed, just because of this arrangement, it was the area programs, with their comparatively weak claim on university resources, that were in the long run left in a financially precarious position. In practice, however, the personnel of departments and area centers overlapped to such an extent that the issue of source of support was less critical than expected. The sphere of neglect that did appear lay elsewhere—in the disciplines not associated with area programs, particularly in the language departments. These were becoming increasingly aware of both their stake in, and their potential contribution to, area instruction.

The Growth of Area Studies Programs

In the period from 1946 to 1962 several surveys were conducted to determine the number of area programs in operation at a given time. Certain of these surveys also explored the standards by which area programs could be defined. The first was undertaken in 1946 by Robert B. Hall under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council. Excluding the programs dealing with North American and European areas, he listed 22 universities with 45 instructional programs either in operation or planned. Of the active programs, more were aimed at undergraduates than at graduate students. At that time, regional ranking placed Latin America (16), the Far East (14), and Russia and Eastern Europe (11) far in the lead.

By 1951 it was possible for the next surveyor, Wendell C. Bennett, in his study for the Social Science Research Council, to apply more qualitative distinctions on the basis of the 5 years' intervening experience and to identify the solidly grounded undertakings. The concept of an "integrated area program" which he used has since been employed in the Department of State surveys to identify organized and well-planned programs and exclude mere collections of course offerings. The criteria Bennett proposed were:

1. Official university recognition and support of the program
2. Adequate library resources both for teaching and for research on the area
3. Competent instruction in the principal languages of the area
4. Offerings in at least 5 pertinent subjects in addition to language instruction
5. Some specific mechanisms for integrating the area studies
6. An area research program
7. Emphasis on the contemporary aspects of the area

Except for the fifth criterion, these characteristics avoided the more problematical aspects of integration in either area instruction or area research. The delimitation of a geographical area does not, of course, provide any automatic integrating principle. As far as area research is concerned, integration is usually achieved by focusing the relevant disciplinary viewpoints on a particular problem that is significant in the context of a global area or region. In the instructional realm, as Sidney Mintz observed in his survey for the Human Relations Area Files in New Haven, integration may occur in essentially two ways: By bringing diverse disciplinary approaches to bear on an area problem in the presence of students, thereby exposing them to a variety of disciplinary treatments of area subject matter and permitting integration to take place in their minds; and by collaborative multidisciplinary preparation of text material to be presented in integrated form by practitioners of the several pertinent disciplines. Both of these approaches have been used successfully, singly or in combination, and were presumably the mechanisms intended in Bennett's fifth point, although his enumeration as a whole referred rather to planning, coordination, and the permanence of institutional commitment. These more visible characteristics enabled Bennett and others who surveyed the field to rule out the more ephemeral area programs and provide a rough index of growth in the serious adoption of the area studies approach in American higher education.

Excluding the European programs, Bennett found 25 integrated area programs in operation and 19 potential (planned or incipient) programs, with the following global distribution:

Area	Integrated programs	Potential programs
Russia	5	3
Far East	8	3
Southeast Asia	2	1
South Asia	1	2
Near East	2	4
Africa	1	0
Latin America	6	6
Total	25	19

The number of faculty personnel engaged in area instruction reflected the leading position of the Far Eastern, Russian, and Latin American programs; but in numbers of students the Latin American programs were a poor third, well out of proportion to the number of centers and faculty.

The 28 universities covered by Bennett's survey reported an impressive range of language offerings and enrollments but, except for Spanish, Russian, Chinese, and Japanese, advanced instruction in language was scanty and not well distributed. Offerings and enrollments in the less common languages were limited. Language study had not kept pace with the development of area instruction despite nearly universal recognition of the vital importance of language proficiency in area specialization.

Bennett's findings were particularly significant with respect to the degree of involvement of the several disciplines in area programs, and they merit recapitulation. Anthropology was poorly represented in programs dealing with Russia, the Near East, and South Asia, but strong in areas where "primitive" people still resided. Art specialists played a major role only in Far Eastern studies. Economics was especially deficient in programs on Southeast Asia, South Asia, the Near East, and Africa. The study of education had only potential value for area programs. Geography, "though presumably one of the basic subjects of area study," was poorly represented for nearly all areas. While history was basic to many programs, it was deficient for Southeast Asia, South Asia, and Africa. International relations provided few specialists in any area. Law was generally unrepresented in all areas. Literature was strong in all but Southeast and South Asian studies. Philosophy was seldom represented. Political science was weakest in its contribution to Southeast Asian, South Asian, Near Eastern, and African programs. Psychology was found to be "an important field which is not yet involved in area studies." Sociology was needed everywhere, but particularly in Near Eastern and African studies.

The Department of State issued reports on area study programs in three successive editions (1954, 1956, 1959) under the title *Area Study Programs in American Universities;* a further revision entitled *Language and Area Study Programs in American Universities* was produced in 1962; and a revised and augmented edition will appear in 1964. Limited by what institutions report and by uncertainty as to what programs should be included, these State Department reports still provide the best indication of higher education's growing acceptance of the area approach to non-Western studies. Their findings are summarized in the following table.

Region	Number of Programs[1]			
	1954	1956	1959	1962
Africa	3	6	6	13
Asia (general)			6	16
	10	24	(23)	(28)
East Asia			17	12
Southeast Asia	4	9		
	(10)	(15)	12	14
South Asia	6	6		
Latin America	11	28	19	29
Near East	7	12	13	18
Soviet Union and East Europe	14	23	19	34
Total	55	108	92	136

[1] Certain editions combined areas that were listed separately in other editions. Figures in parentheses in the table are supplied for purposes of comparison.

Despite certain fluctuations, the general pattern of growth is apparent. Among the subsidiary tendencies, the marked rise in African and Latin American programs should occasion no surprise. Nor is the continued dominance of Far Eastern and Russian and East European programs unexpected. Within individual programs, the State Department surveys showed significant growth not only in the availability of language instruction but also in the strength and variety of disciplinary representation.

The opportunities for such notable growth were provided in large measure by the foundations, as Axelrod and Bigelow emphasize in chapter 1 of their report. With the Rockefeller Foundation taking the lead in 1933, followed by Carnegie and then by Ford (on a large scale after 1951), foundation support allowed for the development of academic instruction organized on an area basis. These efforts were decisive in assisting the universities to surmount their previous neglect of the non-Western world. While there is no doubt that area programs have won acceptance in the academic community since the 1950's, there is also no doubt that area studies would have died at birth had such continued support not been forthcoming.

The Role of Language Instruction

The outstanding weakness in the area approach by the end of the 1950's was in language instruction. Most languages which were offered were taught with less than optimum effectiveness, owing partly to scarcity of teachers and partly to lack of instructional materials. Many important languages were not taught at all. What had been accomplished in the non-Western languages had been the work of a few leading scholars starting before World War II. The war indicated both the importance of what had been started and the inadequacy of the effort up to that time. Yet as late as 1958 many students otherwise qualified as area specialists were graduating without language proficiency adequate for either fieldwork in their areas or satisfactory library research at home.

Nevertheless, the vital place of language in area studies had become clear. The addition of the word "language" to the title of the area program survey made by the Department of State in 1962 was symbolic of this recognition. Despite shortcomings in practice, it was recognized in theory that indigenous languages were essential for area specialists, whether social scientists or humanists. If there were exceptions, they involved Africa and Southeast Asia where the methods of descriptive linguistics were often advocated as a key to the multitude of indigenous languages, either instead of, or as a supplement to, the learning of one or two uncommon languages that might or might not prove useful in an individual's research. The same two exceptions also pointed up the importance of the common languages—such as English, French, German, and Italian—in non-Western studies.

The Emergence of the Center Concept

It was generally accepted by the late 1950's that language and area studies could not, and should not, attempt to supplant the disciplines. Each of the several related disciplines had a unique contribution that could be realized only if its separate identity and character were retained. As a device for organizing curricular offerings pertinent to a given world area and for assisting the student to become an area specialist, the language and area center was recognized as a focal point for these various skills and viewpoints.

The undergraduate might be offered only an introduction to an alien culture through an integrated area course. Or he might be prepared in more comprehensive fashion by higher levels of specialization leading to graduate study. The master's degree might be earned in an area field; it was sometimes retained as a useful device, particularly for students with nonacademic career goals such as Government service or international commercial activity. But the doctorate was almost universally granted on a departmental basis with concentration on the candidate's chosen area.

While the dispersion of authority and direction among departments often imposed difficulties on the administration of language and area centers, it allowed specialized talent recruited for the center's immediate purposes to be incorporated into the traditional departmental structure. In the words of a report prepared by the South Asian Language and Area Center of the University of Chicago, it assured "that Center development is at every point rooted in the normal University structure." The supporting conviction of that faculty was that language and area studies "are best pursued, not as a field independent of the usual academic disciplines, but rather through specialization in one or two disciplines, which may be applied to the area."

The report of the Conference on Japanese and American Studies, held in Ann Arbor, Mich., in May 1963, emphasized a similar concept of area studies as "an association among disciplines for their mutual gain." The effect of center-style organization of instruction and research, the report stated, "is to make the area specialist aware of the important actual or potential contribution of other fields of learning to problems that are of interest in his own discipline, at the same time that he learns to apply his own discipline's viewpoint and methods to a chosen world area."

The area specialist, a faculty member belonging at once to a department and a language and area center, has emerged as a bridge between these two complementary forms of academic organization. Whether in research or teaching, he is the agent of fruitful and mutually strengthening interaction between his discipline and his area concentration. He is the logical outcome of a center concept that harmonizes rather than competes with customary university structure and mode of operation.

As already stated elsewhere (see Donald N. Bigelow, "The Center Concept and the Changing Curriculum," listed under "Selected Bibliography," p. 64), "The center concept can no longer be regarded as an esoteric matter; it has entered the national scene, not only because of the NDEA but because of its immediate relevance to higher education." The relevance of centers extends further, however, for they are reservoirs of knowledge and skills needed by the community and the country. They offer unique competence in advice and leadership to neighboring institutions, in programs open to community participation, and in specialized knowledge at the service of the Nation in its overseas commitments and relations. All this is in keeping with the American academic tradition of community service.

The Language and Area Centers Program

BY 1958 THE MARKED POSTWAR GROWTH of area studies programs in higher education was coinciding with a rising awareness of the deficiencies of the country's educational system in training its students in science, mathematics, and language. Soviet achievements in education and technology served to heighten a concern that was already lively in certain educational groups and in some Government circles. Appropriate legislation had in fact already been drafted before the advent of Sputnik, with the specific aim of providing Federal encouragement to a nationwide educational effort. In the language field, this effort was spearheaded by the ideas of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Modern Language Association of America which had long been attempting to modernize language learning.

Legislation was developed during 1958 to make public funds available in the field of education on a national scale without encroaching on State and local autonomy. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA), which was passed in September 1958, incorporated several distinct features which were related to each other by their common relevance to the goal of strengthening the educational system at its strategic points. One broad category of activity, language development, was authorized under title VI with responsibility vested in the U.S. Commissioner of Education.

Title VI embodied two separate approaches to the problem of language development. Part A, Centers and Research and Studies, incorporated a three-pronged instrument of aid to the study of modern foreign languages at the higher educational level: Support for the establishment of language and area centers by contracts with institutions of higher education (sec. 601(a)); fellowship stipends to students taking advanced training in modern foreign languages and related area subjects (sec. 601(b)); and research on all modern foreign languages and the areas in which they are used, together with preparation of the instructional materials needed (sec. 602). The Act authorized appropriations for these programs not to exceed $8 million in any one fiscal year. Part B, Language Institutes, provided summer and academic year programs of study in modern instructional techniques and materials for elementary and secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages.

Policies and Criteria for the Establishment of Centers

One of the first tasks of the U.S. Office of Education was to identify the institutions of higher education which had both the capacity and the desire to participate in realizing the objectives of the Act. Although responsible for the effective employment of the funds, from the outset the Office was alive to the need for circumspect procedures that would guarantee the autonomy of the universities against any suggestion of Federal interference. Title I of the Act contained the provision that:

> Nothing contained in this act shall be construed to authorize any department, agency, officer, or employee of the United States to exercise any direction, supervision, or control over the curriculum, program of instruction, administration, or personnel of any educational institution or school system.

Moreover, only by relying on the voluntary cooperation of universities in furthering the development of language and area studies could the objectives of the legislation be served. Institutions of high caliber would be interested in Federal support for the advancement of educational aims that were genuinely their own. At the same time, because the Act required the universities to match any Federal contribution, they would hesitate to open their doors to any activity they regarded as extraneous, certainly if any question of external coercion were present.

Given these limitations on the role of the Office and given the fact that language and area centers would necessarily operate within the framework of the total educational missions of the universities, a question immediately arose as to the meaning of the term "establishment" as used in the Act. If the term were construed narrowly to mean support only for completely new centers, the relatively small number of faculty specialists in non-Western languages and areas would be enticed to leave existing programs for the new ones created with Federal support; the result would be merely a dispersion of existing specialists. Such a course would also sacrifice much of the experience accumulated at institutions which already had centers and foreclose any possibility of fruitful collaboration or sharing of experience between "old" non-NDEA centers and such new centers as might be created with NDEA support. At the same time, it was recognized that the basic intent of the law was to assist in the expansion and improvement of the coverage of all world areas and their languages. The problem was resolved by interpreting "establishment" to cover "new and/or expanded activities," either at existing centers or at new centers. The latter could be supported by reason of the need to round out the nationwide distribution of centers and to enlarge the total national capability for language and area instruction.

The principal criteria applied to proposals from institutions of higher education for the creation of new or the expansion of old language and area programs under NDEA were these:

1. Federal funds could only be expended to support new and/or expanded activities on a matching basis and could not exceed 50 percent of the total sum involved.

2. Primary consideration would be given to shortcomings in the field of language, with priority assigned to those languages in which the most critical shortages of trained personnel existed. Secondary consideration would be accorded the "other fields needed to provide a full understanding of the area, regions, or countries" where the critical languages were used.

3. Geographically, the centers should be widely distributed in some approximate relation to student population, for the sake of accessibility and in order to make optimum use of available faculty specialists dispersed over the Nation's campuses.

4. Supported programs should form *integral* parts of total institutional offerings in accredited degree-granting institutions of higher education, and should be long-term undertakings with the continuing support of their universities.

5. As among the major world areas, relative national needs for trained manpower and increased academic capacities should be weighed to determine the number of programs that could be supported with optimum benefit.

In the period between the passage of the Act and the signing of the first language and area center contracts for the academic year 1959–60, a more specific and refined set of policies had to be worked out to guide the Office of Education in its allocation of Federal funds to achieve optimum effectiveness. Early statements by the Commissioner of Education stressed the determination to leave the universities a free hand in deciding what form of center organization would best fit local needs and the structure of the institutions. At the same time it was evident that more sharply defined criteria would have to be applied in order to select wisely among proposed centers and to obtain the greatest possible impetus in the directions intended by the Act. It was clear at the outset that primary emphasis would be upon graduate instruction, inasmuch as most potential centers and faculty specialists were already operating mainly at this level. Furthermore, it was this emphasis that promised earliest returns, in terms of graduate students, from what was at best a long-range undertaking. This implied, however, no discouragement of language and area offerings for undergraduates. Indeed, as the program developed it became apparent that the NDEA centers were serving at least as many undergraduate as graduate students.

The Critical Languages

The Commissioner of Education issued two statements of policy in the first half of 1959 concerning the factors governing the choice of centers. (See app. A, 1 and 2.) Foremost among these was the need for expansion and improvement of training in languages critically needed by the Nation. Once the importance of language had been established, the task of the Office of Education was to identify which of some 3,000 languages were "critical languages."

On the basis of a study conducted by the American Council of Learned Societies, the Commissioner issued an announcement on March 10, 1959, listing Arabic, Chinese, Hindustani, Japanese, Portuguese, and Russian as being among the country's most needed languages. French, German, Italian, and Spanish, although needed, appeared to be "readily available" in terms of "adequate instruction." Despite the relatively widespread availability of instruction, Russian was left in the critical category because of the need to improve the quality of instruction, both in higher education and on the secondary level. One line of approach for the six critical languages "where the evident need is for relatively large numbers of trained persons" would be to designate a number of centers offering each language, recognizing that each center might also offer other regional languages. Other goals for these six would also include the promotion of intensive course offerings, the improvement of teaching materials, and the availability of related studies in the social sciences and humanities.

The statement by the Commissioner also covered a second category of languages, for which the need was less acute. These were not identified but included the official languages of national states. The goal was to strengthen offerings in these languages by at least two centers in different parts of the country. The statement also recognized, without enumerating them, a third category of critical languages not currently in great demand but which might grow in importance. For most of these, adequate teaching materials were lacking. The statement recommended that instruction in these languages should be made available to the extent of perhaps one intensive course every 2 years in each and proposed the preparation of adequate teaching materials, defined as including a basic course with elementary textbook and tapes for oral practice, a reference grammar based on a sound structural analysis of the language, a set of graded readers, and a contemporary dictionary suitable for student use.

The second announcement by the Commissioner concerning modern foreign languages, dated June 17, 1959, enumerated 18 languages found in the course of study and consultation to belong in the second category of priority, but recognized that subsequent study might alter the listing. These languages were: Bengali, Burmese, Finnish, Modern Hebrew, Hungarian, Indonesian-Malay, Khalkha, Korean, Marathi, Persian, Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Singhalese, Swahili, Tamil, Telugu, Thai, Turkish. The announcement called for at least one annual intensive course in each of these languages, with provision for advanced training in both language and area study.

By the second year of the centers program, the lists of 6 languages in the most critical and 18 languages in the less critical categories remained the same; and an additional 59 languages had been enumerated as belonging in the third priority group of critical languages. When Spanish was later added to the first priority group, it joined Russian as a language of critical importance though commonly taught. (See app. A, 4.) All others on the three lists were henceforth regarded as the "uncommon" or "neglected" languages.

The whole problem of emphasis and priority among neglected languages remained a vexing one throughout the first years of NDEA. Although the actual lists were modified at times, the specific enumeration of languages and their division into categories gradually receded before the practical requirements of establishing centers, assigning research contracts, and granting fellowships. Moreover, newly acquired experience quickly brought about an awareness of other and partially unexpected considerations. In the first place, the needs and urgencies for some languages were so great that support of instruction could not wait upon the development of adequate teaching materials in all languages. Existing facilities, as well as the existing interests of student applicants, had to be exploited immediately; this meant unevenness in the coverage of language fields previously announced as vital. For many languages, the desired development of advanced instruction had to wait upon the emergence of a clientele trained in the elementary phase of instruction. Further, it had to be recognized that training of numbers of people in some of the more obscure languages whose importance was mainly potential would be plagued by the problem of employment, that is, that careers would not be abundantly open to students who had specialized in them.

On the other hand, as was pointed out at the Conference on the Neglected Languages held in 1961, for the many African languages both facilities and student candidates were so limited that an effort should be made to provide instruction in *any* African language for which there was a demand, without reference to priorities determined in advance. This conference also reflected the increasing consciousness of linguistics as an ancillary field of special importance not only to future language teachers but also to future specialists in areas where many languages were spoken but a *lingua franca* was lacking.

Finally, and perhaps most important, the Office of Education could not consider the national language need in a vacuum but had rather to adjust its viewpoint to the position taken by the universities, for they retained the primary role in implementing instructional programs. Thus, although the emphasis upon more intensive language instruction remained a fixed point in trying to improve performance, the academic community was not united on this point, and, especially since "intensive" came to mean all things to all men, support was given to both conventional and intensive language programs. At the same time, an existing language and area program could be encouraged to move toward more intensive instruction by treating the introduction of intensive courses to replace or augment conventional offerings as a new and hence supportable activity.

Nevertheless, in the actual negotiation of contracts with universities for the establishment or expansion of language and area programs, the original goals and policies of title VI were closely reflected. The coverage of the six most critical languages by the centers was complete, and wide geographical distribution was achieved. In addition, the centers proved able to offer many of the languages composing the second and third categories of importance. Advanced training followed naturally on the development of a constituency of students trained in the elementary phase. Intensive coursework, meaning more hours of instruction plus drill and laboratory sessions, gradually won increasing numbers of adherents as it proved not only possible but beneficial to incorporate it into the academic schedule, particularly in the form of summer programs conducted in connection with the academic year curriculum—an arrangement which became increasingly popular by the summers of 1962 and 1963.

The Implementation of the Centers Program

The first step in the actual contracting procedure was taken when a university submitted a proposal for a language and area center and furnished detailed information about the existing program, if any, and plans for future development. Ideally, the proposal had four elements: (1) A description of the program, including its history, resources, special research projects, goals, and specific plans for the academic year and/or summer; (2) a list of existing and proposed faculty and courses in the language and area field; (3) plans for new or expanded activities, including, for example, changes in administration, use of the language laboratory, library plans, and travel; and (4) an estimated budget with explanatory notes.

By May 1959 the Office of Education had considered more than 100 proposals submitted to it by universities for the establishment or expansion of language and area centers. A panel of consultants drawn from Government, universities, and educational organizations reviewed the proposals. When selected proposals had been approved, the Office entered into negotiations with the universities concerned as to the precise terms of the contracts in order to satisfy the requirements of the Act and to determine the appropriateness of projected expenditures.

The contracting institutions were expected to supply annual technical and fiscal reports to assure that the terms of the contract had been observed. These annual reports were in due course supplemented, as means of communication, by two meetings of center directors in Washington (in 1960 and 1962), and by periodic visits to the centers by staff members of the Office of Education.

Designated recipients of funds within the universities might be language departments, special administrative organizations such as institutes or interdepartmental area programs, or departments that were coterminous with language and area study centers. In all cases the program of instruction represented a balance between language and area subjects in terms of the institution's current offerings and needs. The amounts allocated represented the outcome of negotiation designed to assure that contracts specified amounts that could be used effectively in the given situations:

In June 1959 the Commissioner announced that 19 centers had been selected for support in the academic year 1959–60. The total allocation for the centers was almost $500,000; and, with the provision for university matching of the Federal funds, this meant that $1 million in new money was being injected into the nationwide language and area study effort. (For amounts of allocations to individual centers, see app. E, table 1.)

The distribution of these centers by world area reflected both the national educational needs as perceived at the time and the availability of facilities for effective offerings: East Asian (4 centers), Southeast Asian (1), South Asian (3), Middle Eastern (3), Uralic-Altaic (1), Asian-Slavic (1), Slavic and East European (3), African (1), Luso-

TOTAL FEDERAL SUPPORT: $499,653

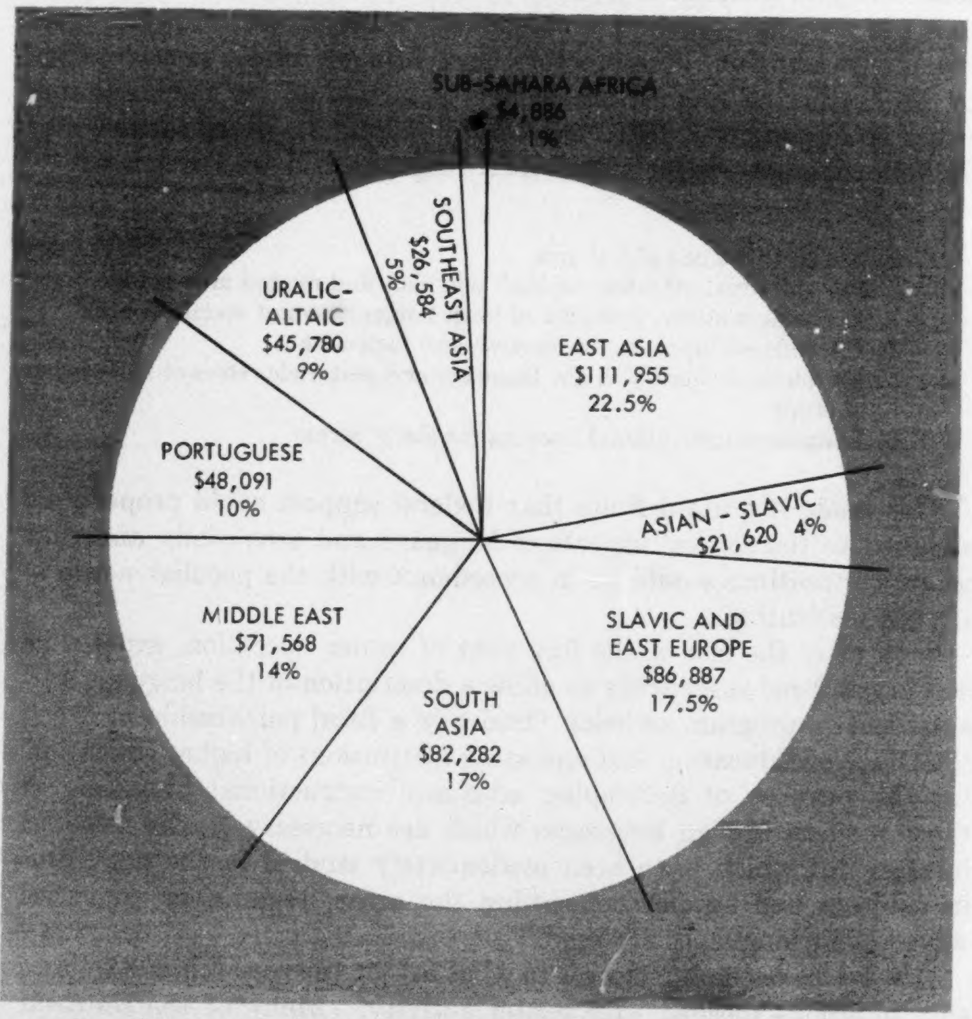

Figure 1.—Allocation of Federal Support to NDEA Language and Area Centers, by world region: Academic year 1959–60

Brazilian (2). (See app. E, table 3.) The six most critical languages were each offered at a number of centers: Russian (3 centers), Hindi-Urdu (3), Chinese (5), Japanese (3), Arabic (3), Portuguese (2). (See app. E, table 5.) A substantial number of less critical languages were taught in the same centers with or without Federal support.

During the first year of center operation, the attention of the Office of Education was concentrated on ways to round out the program so as to provide for adequate coverage of global areas and critical languages while achieving a proper geographical distribution in the United States. The designation of 27 more centers and the allocation of three times as much money ($1,575,000) to the center program for the academic year 1960–61—the only year in which large-scale expansion took place—was to make possible considerable progress toward these goals. In addition, other factors were brought under consideration by the gathering momentum of the undertaking. A memorandum issued on December 1, 1959 (see app. A, bulletin 3), stated forthrightly the following criteria for a successful language and area program:

1. A clearly defined global area
2. For this area, attention to both language and related area study
3. In the area study, inclusion of both humanities and social sciences
4. Interrelated programs of research and instruction
5. An adequate library in the language and materials relevant to the area of study
6. Long-term institutional backing for the program

This made it quite definite that Federal support could properly be assigned to the several aspects of language and area study and that specific allocations would be in accordance with the peculiar needs of a given institution.

Soon after the end of the first year of center operation, experience had crystallized sufficiently to allow a description of the language and area centers program as being "basically a fiscal partnership between the Office of Education and operating institutions of higher education for the purpose of developing adequate instructional programs in those modern foreign languages which are necessary to the national interest but which have been inadequately studied in the past, and in subjects and studies concerning the areas, regions, or countries where these languages are used."

It was also becoming clearer to what extent the research and fellowship programs meshed with center activity. Many of the research contracts for the development of instructional materials in critical languages were negotiated with staff members at the centers. All of the materials so produced added steadily to the teaching arsenal of the centers and of other institutions. A high proportion of National Defense Foreign Language Fellowship holders (77 percent in 1960–61) were enrolled at the centers, thus simultaneously putting them to use and contributing to their strength.

Finally, the experience gained with the undergraduate center that was established at the University of Kansas in the first year of the program encouraged a fuller exploration of language and area studies at the undergraduate level. Clearly the role of the language and area center in undergraduate education had yet to be developed. Equally clearly there was a vital role to be played. As the memorandum of December 1, 1959, had stated, "It must be recognized that advanced language and area work in graduate centers cannot attain optimum effectiveness unless there are opportunities for prospective students to be recruited and given preliminary training at the undergraduate level." The obstacles of crowded curriculums, interwoven course requirements, and postponed undergraduate specialization were recognized, but the desirability of starting language and area preparation early in a student's academic career was held to be overriding. Accordingly, contracts were negotiated for support of 3 wholly undergraduate centers in 1960–61. These were at the University of Arizona, the University of Iowa, and at Portland State College.

After some 70 additional proposals had been submitted in 1960, 27 new centers were selected for the ensuing year, bringing the total to 46 centers at 30 institutions of higher education in 19 States and the District of Columbia.[3] The resulting array of centers for 1960–61 provided not only a much-improved coverage of the world areas and languages but also a better distribution around the country, except for the southeastern States where no center had as yet been designated. In the second year, as in the first, approximately 60 percent of Federal funds was used for support of language offerings and 40 percent for area courses. In 1960–61 not only were the most critical languages being taught at more centers (Russian—11, Hindi-Urdu—6, Chinese—13, Japanese—9, Arabic—7, Portuguese—2), but all of the second-priority group of neglected languages were offered at centers. A total of 44 languages were being taught with Federal support and 7 others were offered at NDEA centers without Federal aid. Instruction in another 6 languages was available if needed.

At this point programs at the 46 centers were divided among world regions as follows: East Asian—11, Southeast Asian—3, South Asian—6, Middle Eastern—8, Uralic-Altaic—1, Asian-Slavic—2,

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[3] It was at this stage, in the fall of 1960, that the inventory of NDEA centers was conducted by Axelrod and Bigelow. Chapter 2 of that report describes the centers program as it existed then.

Slavic and East European—9, African—4, Luso-Brazilian—2. (See app. E, table 3.)

TOTAL FEDERAL SUPPORT: $1,575,000

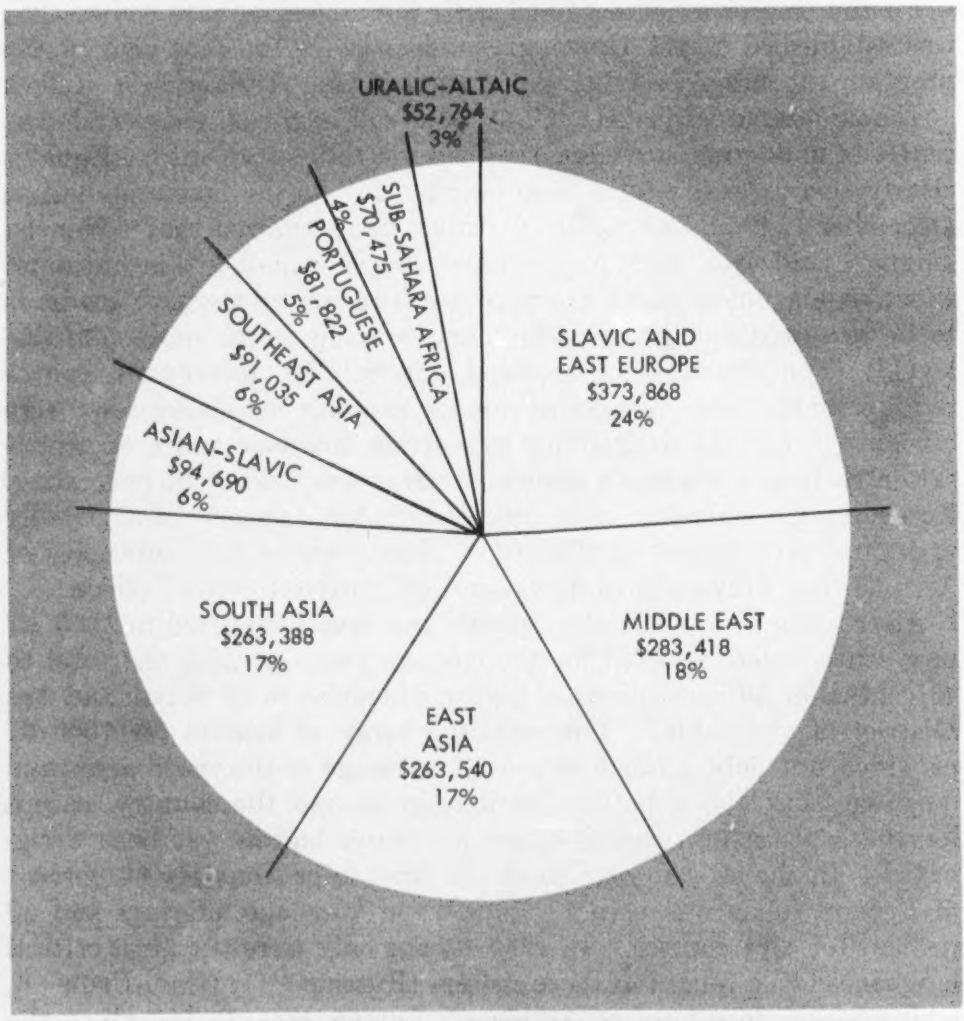

Figure 2.—Allocation of Federal support to NDEA Language and Area Centers, by world region: Academic year 1960–61

After the first 2 years of activity, the benefits that seemed capable of realization were: (1) The development of a larger cadre of higher education personnel in the language and area fields; (2) adequate programs for degree candidates, preparing them effectively in the skills, knowledge, and research techniques needed as background for specialized careers in teaching or public service; and (3) a strong new potential in higher education for serving the specialized manpower needs of the Nation and, indeed, of the free world. These gains were as clearly acceptable to higher education itself as to the officials charged with administering the program.

For the academic year 1961–62, the third year of center operation, the allocation of funds was raised only slightly—from $1,575,000 to $1,750,000. One Russian center was added at Vanderbilt University, partly in order to strengthen the representation of the centers program in the South and partly to fortify Russian language and area coverage. Beyond this, fiscal limitations permitted only modest increases in some centers, a condition which was to remain substantially unchanged for the next 3 years.

This stringent limitation of NDEA funds permitted additional support to only the most vital aspects of language and area instruction. Once that concentration of resources had been achieved, however, the centers were ready for an expansion which has had to rely almost entirely on university support for its achievement.

Following the announcement of the Alliance for Progress in 1961, and in accord with the growing academic interest in Latin America, Spanish was included in the list of most critical languages, with the special qualification that emphasis be placed on graduate area training rather than language per se. (See app. A, 4.) A survey was made to find the appropriate Latin American centers which would supplement the two Portuguese centers already supported at New York University and the University of Wisconsin. Thus, in spite of the limited funds available and after careful deliberation and consultation with experts in the field, midway through the academic year 1961–62 five new centers were designated to begin their activities in the spring semester of 1962. The five new Latin American programs—at the Universities of Texas, Florida, and California (Los Angeles), and at Tulane and Columbia Universities—received support in the amount of $20,000 each as of February 1, 1962, for the second semester of the academic year 1961–62. With the designation of these five new centers, the total expenditure for 1961–62 rose to just over $1,850,000. To make this possible, $100,000 was provisionally committed from the next year's funds.

Although the final allocation of $2,110,000 for the academic year 1962–63 constituted a significant increase over the total for the previous year, for the 47 centers, with which the program had started the academic year 1961–62, the benefit was almost negligible. The five new Latin American centers designated halfway through that year were now operating through the full academic year 1962–63 and were receiving support in the amount of $40,000 each; the Luso-Brazilian Center at the University of Wisconsin was receiving increased support

TOTAL FEDERAL SUPPORT: $1,851,007

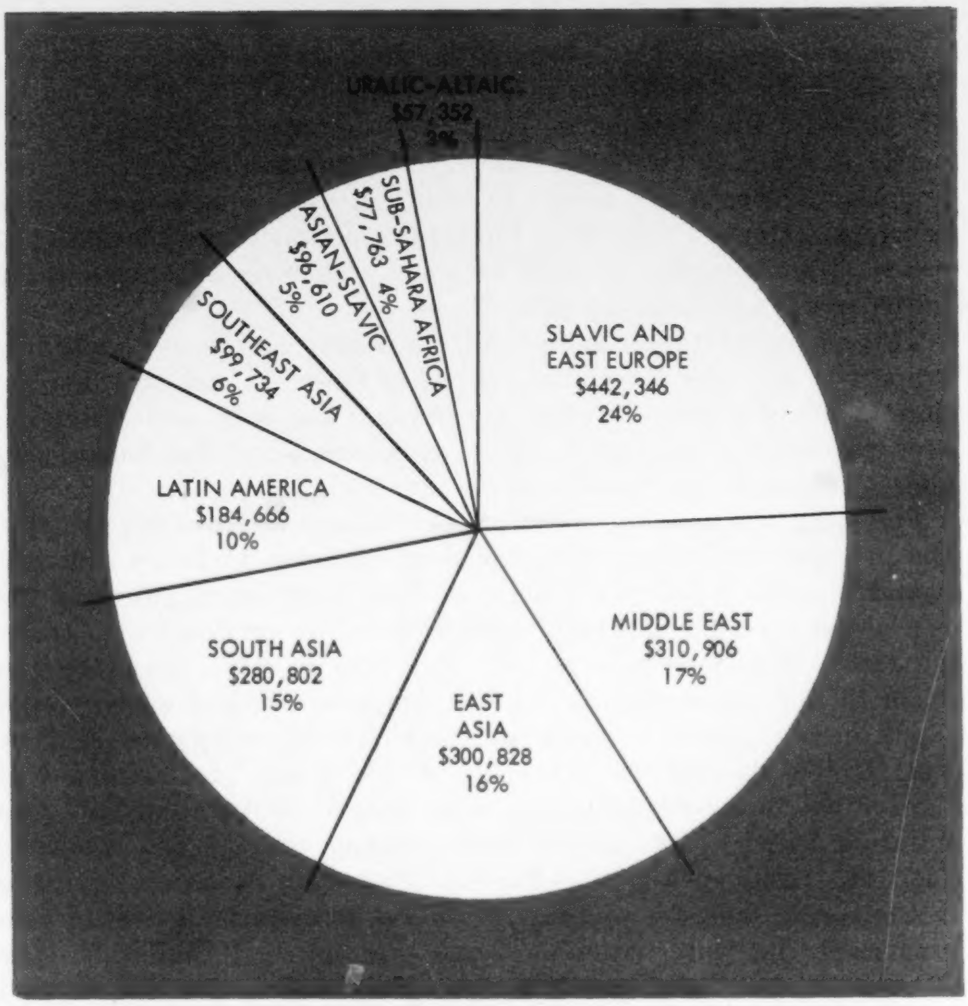

Figure 3.—Allocation of Federal support to NDEA Language and Area Centers, by world region: Academic year 1961–62

to enable it to embrace all of Latin America; and a new center had been designated at Indiana University for the conduct of a second Uralic-Altaic program, thus bringing the number of NDEA centers up to 53. The result was that a substantial portion of the increase in available funds was already obligated. Moreover, because support once allocated to a given center was not as a matter of policy either withdrawn or reduced (except at university request), this obligation of funds amounted to a commitment for future years as well. Thus, the bulk of the costs of expansion and rising expenses at the original centers was borne by the universities themselves.

In many cases, NDEA support had never amounted to the 50 percent of the cost of a center operation as permitted by law; after 2 years, during which levels of NDEA support remained almost fixed, the proportion of the cost borne by Federal funds fell even further. Indeed, Federal funds constituted only 20–30 percent of the collective operating budgets of a group of 24 centers which voluntarily submitted comparisons between the amounts of NDEA support and their total operating budgets for either 1961–62 or 1962–63. The willingness of these universities to bear the financial burdens of expansion seemed to demonstrate the extent to which the center concept had found acceptance in the academic community. Their ability to continue to do so, however, remained uncertain. As the director of Stanford's Chinese-Japanese Language and Area Center stated in his technical report submitted in July 1963:

> While the Fellowship program and the Center program under Title VI have played a major part in the development because of the financial assistance that has become available from the Office of Education, it should be pointed out that this has given an impetus that goes beyond the level of Government support. This is shown by the increase in the University's contribution to East Asian studies. The University's contribution has been growing even faster than the Government's and is now more than five times the amount the Office of Education contributes to the Center. It is difficult to see how the University after the next few years can find the resources to continue this rate of growth.

Owing in large part to the designation of the new Latin American centers in the southeastern United States, the 53 centers operating in the fourth academic year of the NDEA centers program provided a much improved geographical distribution of centers in the country. As regards distribution by world area, the 53 centers are now divided as follows: East Asian—11, Southeast Asian—3, South Asian—6, Middle Eastern—8, Uralic-Altaic—2, Asian-Slavic—2, Slavic and East European—10, African—4, and Latin American—7. (See app. E. table 3.)

On the basis of a rough comparison between the capacities of existing programs and national needs, the most serious deficiencies concerned Africa and South and Southeast Asia. In planning for academic year 1963–64, the fifth year of the program, an increase of funds, provided by a transfer from the fellowship program, made it possible to strengthen the African and the South Asian areas. A new center for South Asian studies was designated at Duke Univer-

TOTAL FEDERAL SUPPORT: $2,110,000

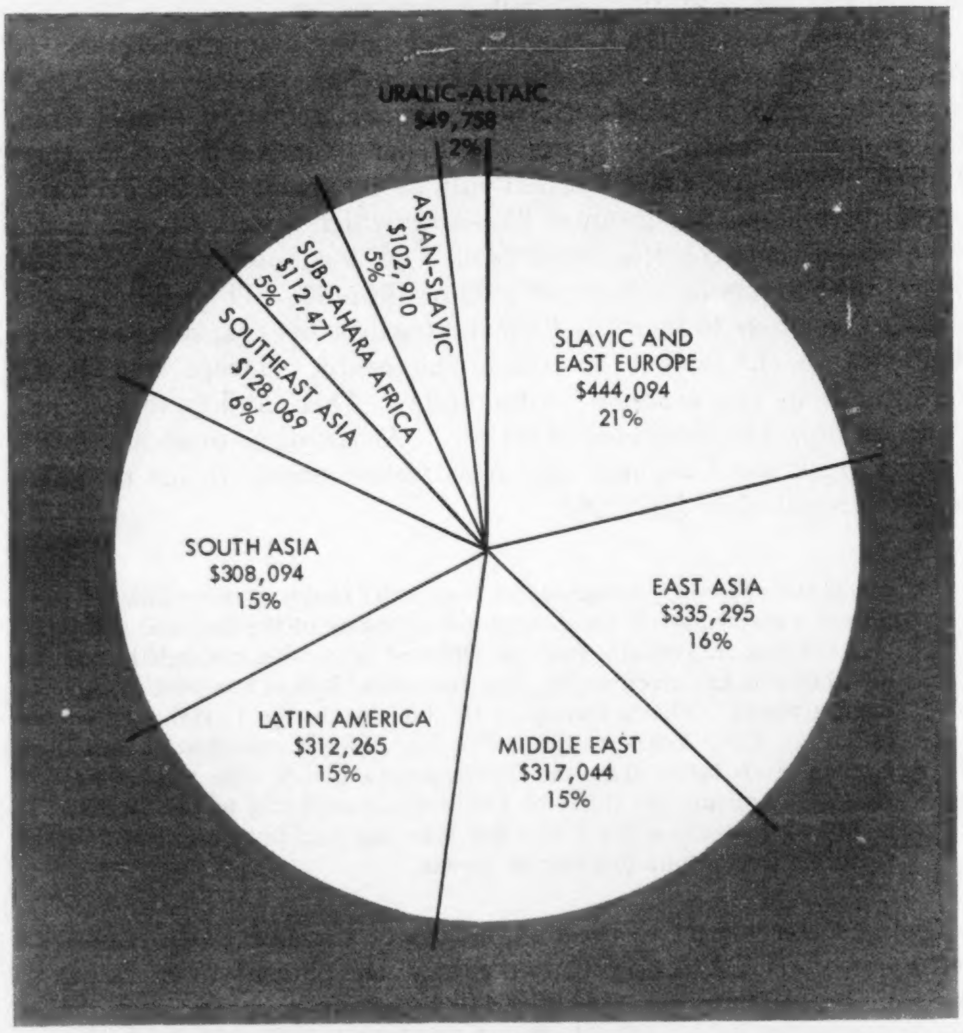

Figure 4.—Allocation of Federal support to NDEA Language and Area Centers, by world region: Academic year 1962–63

sity, further improving the situation in the South. Support was provided for a fifth African center at Columbia University; and existing support to the large African center at UCLA was nearly doubled.

The final distribution of NDEA support for 1963–64, a total of $2,520,000, placed the Slavic and East Asian areas at the head of the list; each enjoyed approximately 20 percent of the available support. Latin America, the Middle East, and South Asia each received from 12 to 15 percent. The African share had risen to 7 percent and the other global regions—Southeast Asian, Asian-Slavic, and Uralic-Altaic—each received 5 percent or less. (See app. E, table 3.)

TOTAL FEDERAL SUPPORT: $2,520,000

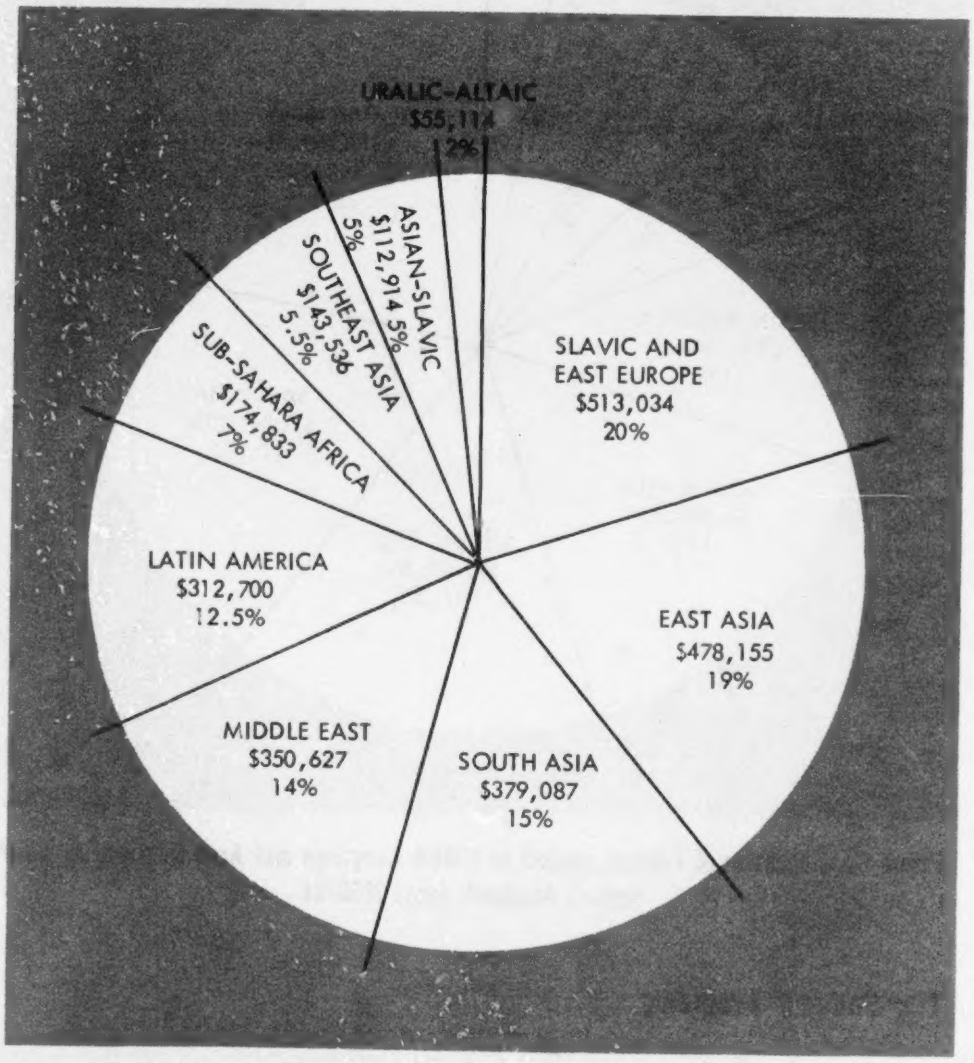

Figure 5.—Allocation of Federal support to NDEA Language and Area Centers, by world region: Academic year 1963–64

TOTAL FEDERAL SUPPORT: $8,555,660

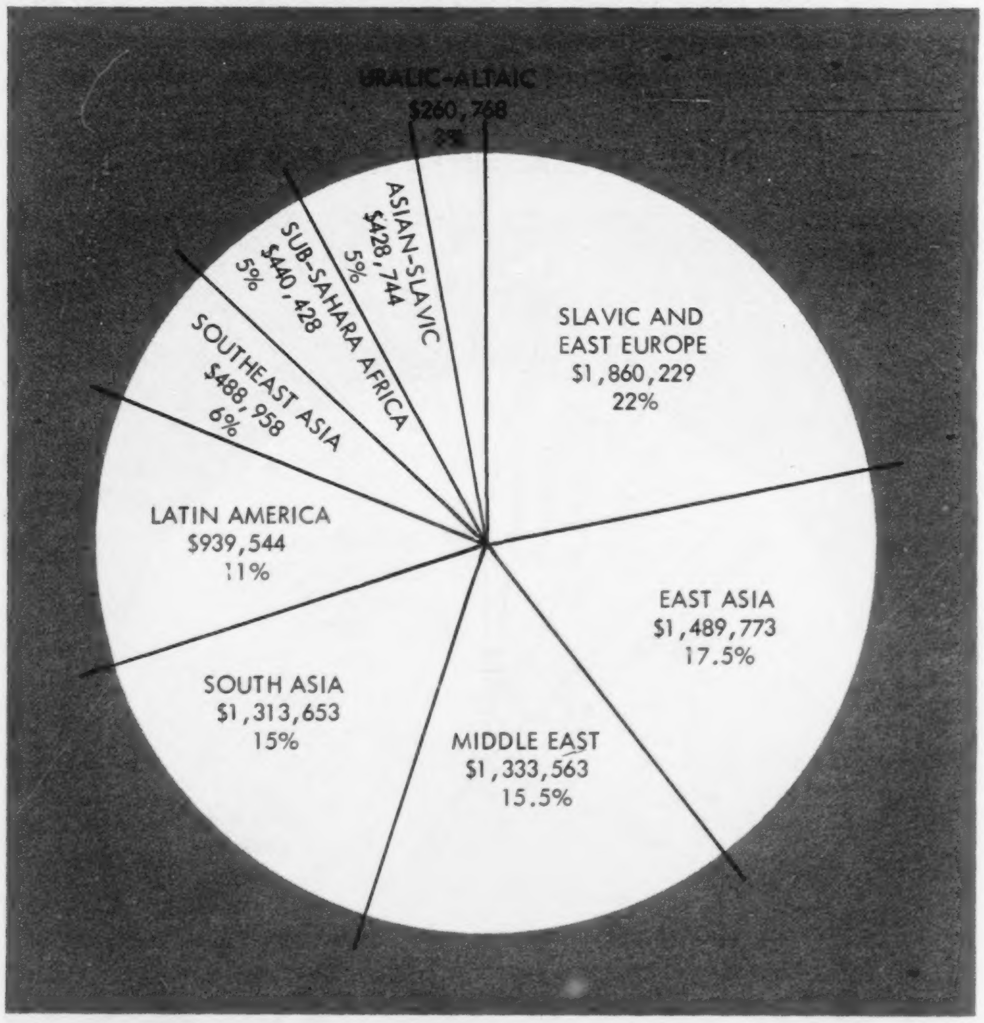

Figure 6.—Allocation of Federal support to NDEA Language and Area Centers, by world region: Academic years 1959–64

The Summer Programs

In contracting for language and area centers the Office of Education at first made no distinction between summer programs and the regular academic year programs. Annual contracts were written and automatically renewed to preserve continuity and enable institutions to plan ahead with some sense of security. As no attempt was made to differentiate what took place in the summer from what happend during the balance of the year, Federal support was initially given for summer session instruction at some centers on the same basis as for academic year instruction. In 1960, the first time summer programs were supported, somewhat less than $40,000 was allocated to 10 programs. The following summer 15 programs received nearly $55,000 out of a total center allocation of $1,851,007. During both summers other programs were also offered by language and area centers but without Federal support.

By 1961 it was apparent that this method of contracting did not make the most of the value of summer for language learning. The academic profession was becoming painfully aware that too often graduate students had to commence learning an uncommon language late in their academic career, to the detriment of their particular discipline. At the same time, the revolution that was taking place in the method of language learning, together with the development of many summer intensive courses which compressed into 8 to 12 weeks academic work that had previously often taken a full year, was becoming apparent even to some skeptics. While it was obvious that the academic year program played the more substantial part in the long-range development of language and area studies, the summer was peculiarly suited to, and offered unique possibilities for, language learning. Hence, in 1962 plans were made to utilize the summer more fully as an ancillary development of the language and area centers program.

In 1962, NDEA funds allocated to center programs for that summer rose abruptly to over $140,000. This was divided among 24 summer programs, and accounted for 7 percent of the total annual centers expenditure as compared with 3 percent in 1961. Four of these 1962 summer programs broke new ground by being the subject of separate contracts which gave a high priority to intensive language instruction. Many of the supported summer sessions had, of course, always involved language courses, and sometimes these had been intensive. But the separate contract system now made it possible to put summer programs to a special use. The need to master difficult languages while fulfilling the other basic degree requirements saddled many graduate students with unduly burdensome academic programs. The summer programs, by offering special language courses and providing students with the opportunity to concentrate on their language needs, were aimed directly at this problem. It was found that by employing an intensive approach—usually 15 to 20 contact hours per week for 8 to 12 weeks plus work in the language laboratory—2 semesters of "regular" language instruction could be telescoped into a single intensive summer session. The advantage to the student, whether graduate or undergraduate, especially in those cases where language mastery is strictly ancillary to the requirements for a degree in another discipline, is all but universally recognized.

By the summer of 1963 nearly all summer programs were the subject of separate contracts. The result was that their offerings could be planned on a nationwide scale, with support allocated in such a manner as to insure reasonable geographical distribution of offerings and appropriate representation of the critical languages. Summer programs from then on were to be selected for support each year without reference to previous support. Each summer thus became the occasion for an independent competition among centers wishing to offer summer language instruction. This system was in marked contrast to that used for the academic year centers which were assured of continuing support.

The summer of 1963 saw the same number (24) of programs supported as in 1962; but this year only the 4 which had been included in the contracts for the new Latin American centers were holdovers from the earlier system of contracting. The other 20 represented an unprecedented investment of $211,338 in summer intensive language instruction at NDEA centers, testimony to the expanding demand for such offerings. Of the 24 programs, 6 were East Asian, 5 were Latin American, and 4 were Slavic and East European. South Asia, the Middle East, and Africa had 2 programs each; Southeast Asia, Uralic-Altaic, and Asian-Slavic had one each. (See app. E, tables 9 and 10, for distribution by world region and fiscal allocation, 1960–1964.)

Plans for the summer of 1964, crystallized in the fall of 1963, provided for 22 programs of intensive language instruction at 20 universities. Federal support totaled approximately $250,000, somewhat less than half of the total cost of all the programs. Thirty-two critically needed languages (plus Sanskrit) were offered to about 1,500 students, over half of them graduate students. Undergraduate enrollments, which are steadily increasing, accounted for the balance. Of the 22 programs, 5 fell in the East Asian area, 5 in Slavic and East European fields, 3 each in South Asian, Middle Eastern, and Latin American, 2 in Southeast Asian, and 1 in the African area. (See app. E, table 11.)

Several groups of universities alternate in offering joint or cooperative summer programs. Although many institutions prefer to operate their own programs, the advantages of a rotating summer school have been persuasive. Nationwide enrollments in some of the critically needed languages are too small to justify duplication of courses. In addition, joint effort allows concentrated use of the skills of the limited number of faculty members available for instruction and at the same time gives teachers greater freedom and thus more time for research. Moreover, in a joint or rotating summer program the student usually has a larger number of courses from which to arrange useful combinations of language and area courses, although for the most part a student taking an elementary intensive course has no time for anything else.

Several cooperative programs received NDEA support for summer 1964. The Inter-University Program for Near Eastern Languages, the pioneer among such ventures, was held at UCLA after a summer (1963) in which it received no NDEA funds because it was held at Georgetown University where there was no NDEA center. The second of five rotating Far Eastern Language Institutes sponsored in the Midwest by the Committee on Institutional Cooperation was held at Indiana University, also a non-NDEA center and thus without Federal support under title VI, although the first year's program at the University of Michigan was conducted with NDEA matching funds. The Inter-University Rotating Summer School on South Asia, held at the University of Chicago in 1963, moved to the University of California (Berkeley) in 1964 with the participation, in addition, of the Universities of Wisconsin, Michigan, and Minnesota. The alternating Southeast Asian language program was conducted at Cornell after a summer at Yale in 1963. The Universities of Kansas and Colorado cooperated in sponsoring two programs, one in Russian and Polish and the other in Chinese and Japanese; in 1963 the former was at Colorado and the latter at Kansas, and they reversed their locations for 1964. Finally, although there is no formal structure of cooperation in the African fields, since 1962 NDEA funds have supported one major African program each summer; the one for 1964 was held at Duquesne University.

The significance of the summer language programs has been attested by reports from the institutions themselves, by a preliminary appraisal conducted in 1962 which helped to set goals for summer language instruction (see app. C), and by a seminar held at the University of Chicago in August 1963 and composed of center faculty members who had visited or were involved in teaching in 1963 summer programs (see app. D). The testimony, however, also draws attention to unresolved problems, such as the placement of students, the articulation of summer instruction with academic year coursework, the limited subvention available to students, and the high cost of instruction.

The summer intensive program remains the major device currently available for minimizing the burden of uncommon language learning in academic year curriculums and the resulting prolongation of degree programs. The summer also provides optimal conditions for single-minded application to language learning and permits maximum utilization of the still limited resources of instructional talent in the uncommon languages. Furthermore, the new NDEA concentration on intensive summer programs, illustrated by the allotment to centers of 100 undergraduate awards for summer language study in 1963 (doubled in 1964), may be contributing to the current general tendency to enliven and intensify summer study for both graduate and undergraduate students.

Impact of the Centers Program

OTHER PARTS of this report view the centers program conducted under the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in the larger context of a nationwide educational movement stressing language and area studies of non-Western regions of the world. This section focuses more narrowly on the contractual relationships between the U.S. Office of Education and the 55 federally supported language and area centers, on actual expenditures of public funds for the support of these centers, and on some of the overall achievements of the program.

Financial Support, Center Distribution, and Global Coverage

The Federal Government will have spent just over $8,500,000 on language and area center operations by June 30, 1964, the end of the first 5 years of the centers program. In 1959–60 the program started modestly with an allocation of $500,000. In the following year expenditures rose to $1,575,000; in 1961–62, to about $1,850,000; in 1962–63, to $2,110,000; and in 1963–64, to $2,520,000. (See app. E, table 1.)

With the prescribed 50 percent university contribution to the financing of the new and/or expanded activities eligible for NDEA support, the new funds infused into language and area programs by the end of the fifth academic year, 1963–64, could not total less than $17 million. Since many of the universities were contributing far more than 50 percent of total center budgets, with some providing as much as 80 percent, the total size of the investment was, of course, substantially higher.[4]

In the original planning of the centers program it was thought that some 50 centers could reasonably be expected to achieve the goal of adequate coverage both of world regions and of domestic enrollments in higher education. The 55 centers established by the beginning of academic year 1963–64 were thus not far wide of the number originally postulated.

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[4] Funds currently being allocated for academic year 1964–65, including the 1964 summer program, will add another $2,580,000, thus bringing the grand total to over $11 million by June 30, 1965. Because of the overmatching of Federal funds by the universities, not less than $25 million will have been invested in language and area studies since 1958.

Meanwhile, however, the growing acceptance of the center concept in higher education generally, fostered in part by the example of the federally supported centers and in part by the momentum of non-Western studies, had rendered an expansion of the original target entirely feasible except for budgetary limitations. Increasing numbers of non-NDEA language and area programs had appeared across the academic map by 1963–64, constituting a large potential clientele for Federal support in the event that larger resources should become available. As the 53 center directors observed in a statement (see app. B) formulated in fall 1962: "Many critical languages are not yet taught in this country; others are taught only at the introductory level. In spite of the training of new specialists under provisions of the Act, we lack sufficient faculty with competence in all the areas of importance to the U.S. Upon us will now fall a large share of the duty of training the teachers who will introduce languages in much earlier stages of school and college education. The same considerations of national interest which led to the enactment of the National Defense Education Act in 1958 are more pressing now than then."

Geographical distribution of centers through the various regions of the United States was achieved only in the early part of 1962 by the designation of new Latin American centers, some of which were located in the previously unrepresented Southern States. With the exception of the Russian Center at Vanderbilt University and the newly designated South Asian Center at Duke University, however, the Southern States east of Texas are still without centers for other parts of the world. Otherwise, however, while centers are not spread evenly over the map by States, the distribution accords quite closely with student population. (See map, frontispiece.)

As for distribution by global region (see app. E, table 3), the paramount weaknesses at the end of 5 years of NDEA still appear to be chiefly in Africa and South and Southeast Asia. The designation of new centers for 1963–64 at Duke University and Columbia University, for South Asian and African studies respectively, was but a modest remedy for the deficiency. This is not to say that expansion in other regions appears unwarranted, but only that these areas seem more seriously underrepresented. With respect to other regional arrangements, some sentiment has also been manifested for combinations of regions at a given center where this appeared to offer economies and, on the other hand, for attention to more compact subareas, such as East Africa, the Caribbean, or the Balkans, on which a center might concentrate its work.

There is of course no single pattern on which all centers must model themselves. It is entirely proper that some centers be large and ambitious, others modest in size and objective. Some may wish to enlarge their purview geographically, others to focus more narrowly. Some may already have attained their desired coverage and scale, whether modest or ambitious, while others still find themselves in an early stage of growth and expansion. It was with some such idea of functional diversification among centers in mind that one center director was prompted to ask: "Might it not be wiser if the centers of high specialization and great resources cooperated with the smaller centers within given regional groupings for the purpose of promoting commonly agreed upon objectives?" Future center development may well reflect an increasing differentiation of roles such that the small center will, in his words, "not feel it necessary to be exactly like the big one."

Student Enrollment, Faculty, and Balance of Courses

Assessment of the impact of NDEA support on either enrollments or faculty personnel at the centers cannot be exact. While statistics might show how many students are enrolled in center courses and how many instructors are supported by NDEA funds for teaching those courses, it would be misleading to assume that there is any way of measuring *absolute* gains over the situation that would now prevail had NDEA not been enacted. The trend in the direction encouraged by this section of the Act was already strong, and some of the activities now supported by Federal funds would probably have been effected in any case through the use of university or other resources—although this would certainly have entailed commensurate sacrifices, particularly in such expensive undertakings as the introduction of new language offerings into the curriculum.

Basically, what NDEA support has accomplished is the reinforcement of other resources in such a way that language and area studies could move ahead more rapidly and on a broader front. Federal support has assured the maintenance of a balance between language and area courses, between instructional and other costs, and among the several world regions. Without NDEA, the advance could have been neither so steady, so balanced, nor so widespread. The NDEA centers program has helped language and area studies to become a regular and accepted activity on at least 34 major campuses throughout the United States.

While no single yardstick is available by which all aspects of the language development program can be measured, and while the responsibility for the growth of the program belongs in many places, the fact that there has been a broad gain on every front is clearly evident. It would appear that from 1958–59 (the academic year preceding the implementation of title VI) to 1963–64 (for which, at this writing, no definitive statistics are available), the number of uncommon modern foreign languages offered at institutions of higher learning rose from fewer than 20 to more than 80. In the same 5-year period, at NDEA centers alone, the number of teachers offering instruction in these languages grew from less than 80 to well over 200. And the number of college and university students in the country learning these uncommon languages (that is, foreign languages other than Russian, Spanish, French, German, and Italian) more than trebled.

Basic to this trend has been the Federal support which has enabled NDEA centers to originate offerings in languages previously untaught and to bear the initially high costs of these courses while enrollments remained small. The effects of this are evident in the steady climb in the total number of languages offered with Federal support from 25 in 1959–60 to 44 in the next year, to 48 in 1961–62, to 52 in 1962–63, and, finally, to 56. But NDEA support has also contributed indirectly to a corresponding, though less momentous, increase in the centers' capacity to offer critical languages without Federal support. By 1963–64, the total of supported and unsupported languages offered at centers had reached approximately 75. (See app. E, tables 4 and 5.)

In fall 1962 the combined total of language courses offered at all centers was over 700, as compared with nearly 850 courses in area subjects. In terms of course enrollments, some 40 percent were in language and the rest in area courses. (App. E, tables 6 and 7 show area courses by discipline but the totals there are cumulative for the full academic year.)

A crucial point concerns the relationship between language instruction and offerings in the related area disciplines. Nearly all concepts of area studies have included acknowledgement of the need to maintain an equilibrium between language and area. More than half of all center support under the Act has gone into language instruction in order to help establish this equilibrium and to insure that area specialists, whether primarily language or social science students, should be able to acquire proficiency in the main language or languages of their areas. The net result of title VI support has been to foster and strengthen language study wherever it was deficient and especially to encourage the offering of courses in many more languages than had been taught before. (See app. E, table 5.) On the other hand, where area offerings were the weaker element, they have often received greater support.

Without taking account of variables such as the amount of time given to center courses or the duplication which results when the same individual teaches both language and area courses, the following table shows the number of teaching personnel, exclusive of informants (native speakers) and assistants, supported in whole or in part from program funds in the first 4 academic years of NDEA:

Field	Number of teaching personnel supported			
	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62	1962–63
Language	83	199	228	212
Area	48	129	154	246

With respect to faculty appointments, NDEA centers have been encouraged, within the limits of available funds, to make needed appointments to fill out their programs of language instruction in the assurance that such new activities would have high priority as allowable expenses. In this way, not only has the recruitment of highly qualified scholars been assisted, but the employment of personnel for the drill work involved in intensive language teaching and for the operation of language laboratories has also been stimulated.

In the same way the inclusion of specialists in related disciplines not previously represented in center course offerings has always been an allowable expense. By allocating portions of their NDEA funds to help support newly appointed specialists in the appropriate departments, centers have often been able to strengthen area offerings in economics, sociology, linguistics, art, and other disciplines.

With respect to faculty, two additional tendencies can be mentioned. One is the growing inclination, reflecting the enhanced status and permanence of centers, to appoint to tenure positions those faculty members whose principal responsibilities lie within a center program. The other is the greater opportunity which centers afford faculty specialists to give an increasing portion of their teaching time to the subjects of their specialization. As offerings in more specialized subjects increase, faculty members are often able to devote more time to the fields in which they have invested their training; this is particularly rewarding to them when these courses are also clearly within the boundaries of the discipline in which they wish to maintain their credentials.

Finally, the gathering of scholarly strength within the centers has had demonstrable value in connection with the research program conducted under the terms of title VI of the Act. This program has given high priority to the preparation of basic instructional materials for the neglected languages. And the centers have been at once primary users of these materials, along with the many other institutions benefiting from this research, and repositories of language skills which could be employed in the development of the materials. Approximately 70 NDEA language research projects have been or are being conducted by some 50 persons associated with the centers.

The extent to which the purpose of the Congress has been fulfilled is evidenced by the record of growth in student enrollments in modern foreign language courses. Annual reports by the Modern Language Association of America (MLA) on college language enrollments have amply demonstrated that, for the country as a whole, student enrollments have increased much more rapidly than have overall college and university registrations. From 1958 to 1961, for example, language course enrollments grew about twice as fast as did registrations in higher education. And for those early years, within the general increase in language enrollments, the rate of growth for graduate students exceeded the rate for undergraduates; from 1960 to 1961, for example, graduate language enrollments rose steeply by 27.5 percent, while undergraduate enrollments rose by 12.8 percent.

Concentrating more directly on the critical languages supported at centers, the MLA findings show still more striking increases in uncommon language enrollments, particularly among graduate students. Whereas the uncommon languages accounted for only 1.9 percent of all modern foreign language enrollments in 1958, the figure had risen to 2.4 percent by 1961. And the following table, extracted from the MLA reports, shows the extent of growth for certain uncommon languages:

Higher Education Enrollments by Language, Fall Semesters, 1958–62

Language	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
Afrikaans	3	5	6	3	10
Alaskan-Athapaskan					6
Albanian	1		8	5	4
Altaic					3
Amharic			2	1	3
Arabic	371	426	525	693	721
Armenian	35	21	20	35	72
Bambara				7	3
Bantu	2	5	4	7	
Bengali			9	12	23
Berber languages			1	3	7
Bulgarian	9		23	34	32
Burmese		1	25	12	18
Caucasian		2			
Chinese	585	799	1, 763	2, 200	2, 165
Creole (African)				2	
Czech	42	49	95	192	171
Egyptian				3	
Eskimo				7	11
Estonian			2	1	8
Ewe		1	4	5	
Finnish	4	11	20	9	39
Gafat				1	
Geez				1	
Georgian			7	3	3
Gio		1			
Gurage				1	
Harari				1	
Hausa					2
Hawaiian	48	41	50	33	71
Hindi	8	20	106	168	177
Hindistani	6	33			
Hungarian	18	8	69	78	92
Ibo				3	
Icelandic	5	4	17	33	15
Ilocano				4	
Indonesian (Bahasa)		2	13	{84	{86
Indonesian (Malay)	11	23	24		
Iranian	17	13			
Japanese	837	1, 153	1, 539	1, 976	2, 368
Javanese					3
Khalkha			2	4	
Korean	26	23	168	190	188
Kpelle				4	
Krio					20
Kurdish				1	2
Lettish			2		2
Lithuanian	14	17	31	26	26
Malay	1	4	5		
Malayalam					2
Manyrika	3	3			
Marathi		2	1	1	3
Mayan				3	
Mongolian	6	6	9	3	18
Nepah				3	
Nepali				1	2
Persian	23	17	62	97	152
Polish	309	347	539	628	733

Higher Education Enrollments by Language, Fall Semesters, 1958–62—Continued

Language	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
Portuguese	596	800	1, 017	1, 307	1, 802
Quechua	--------	--------	9	3	5
Romanian	--------	1	23	26	36
Samoan	--------	--------	--------	--------	5
Serbo-Croatian	36	47	149	145	102
Siamese	--------	--------	--------	--------	3
Singhalese	--------	1	--------	--------	3
Slovak	1	2	26	74	68
Slovene	--------	--------	4	5	5
Swahili	4	28	22	48	96
Tagalog	1	1	1	--------	4
Tamil	--------	--------	3	4	11
Telugu	--------	--------	4	7	14
Thai	3	7	48	98	74
Tibetan	6	8	13	13	9
Tigrinya	--------	--------	--------	1	--------
Tswana	--------	--------	--------	--------	5
Turkish	36	61	76	111	126
Twi	--------	--------	2	--------	--------
Ukrainian	1	11	59	55	106
Urdu	--------	1	7	7	15
Uzbek	--------	--------	4	5	4
Vietnamese	--------	--------	38	16	153
Yoruba	3	3	23	10	17
Zulu	--------	--------	--------	--------	3
Total enrollment	3, 071	4, 008	6, 679	8, 513	9, 927
Total number of students [1]	2, 047	2, 672	4, 453	5, 675	6, 618

Estimates of number of students are based on the MLA formula, 1½ course enrollments = 1 student.

The situation has been somewhat different for Russian and Spanish, the two languages commonly taught but also eligible for support at NDEA centers because of their critical importance in non-Western studies. Spanish enrollments were already high at the beginning of NDEA, and growth has therefore been modest in percentage terms—a 9.2 percent increase in 1959 over 1958, and a 13.3 percent increase in 1961 over 1960. But Spanish has consistently accounted for over a quarter of both the college modern foreign language enrollments and of the total increase in these enrollments. Russian, on the other hand, underwent its period of dramatic growth at the beginning of NDEA when enrollments rose by 56.5 percent in 1959 over 1958. Since that initial spurt, Russian enrollments have leveled off to a more modest rate of increase (10.9 percent in 1961 over 1960), accounting for just over 5 percent of all modern foreign language enrollments in 1961.

In a general way it is clear, since many uncommon languages are taught almost exclusively at the NDEA centers, that these centers have accounted for a large portion of uncommon language enrollments and a lesser share of Russian and Spanish enrollments. In fall 1962, for example, NDEA centers reported a total of 9,553 language enrollments in 714 courses, representing over 6,000 students. The largest single portion fell to the Slavic and East European centers with 3,759 course enrollments, predominantly in Russian. East Asian centers reported 2,148 course enrollments, mainly in Chinese and Japanese. Latin American centers reported 1,841 course enrollments, almost entirely in Spanish and Portuguese. For the remaining world regions, course enrollments at centers ranged from 1,000 in Middle Eastern languages downward to 130 in African languages. Each of these totals represented a large share of national enrollments in the languages of the world areas concerned.

Approximately 2,421 center students were degree candidates in 1962–63, most of them in traditional disciplines with area specialization but some in area programs as such. About a fourth of the candidacies were for undergraduate degrees, and the rest were for unspecified graduate degrees, whether M.A., Ph. D., or other.

The general pattern of growth in both language and area course enrollments at NDEA centers is illustrated by figures from six randomly chosen centers for which full statistics are available. In 1958–59, the year before any NDEA center was designated, these six programs recorded about 1,000 enrollments in area and fewer than 500 in language courses. By 1962–63, these figures had risen to over 2,000 for area and nearly 1,000 for language. In general, the pattern for these six centers was a doubling of enrollments in both language and area courses. But two of these centers were mainly concerned with Spanish and Russian. If they are excluded, the remaining four register more than the trebling of uncommon language enrollments that the above MLA table shows for the country as a whole.

Other Categories of NDEA Support to Centers

Language and area instruction, including such allowable expenses as instructional salaries, native informants' salaries, and language laboratory costs, has claimed over half of the Federal funds allocated to NDEA centers. Indirect or overhead costs and retirement payments have taken roughly a quarter of the appropriations for centers.

The other activities included as allowable expenses in center contracts are: Library acquisitions and processing, administration, travel (discussed in the subsection "Overseas Activity," p. 46), and special lectures and conferences. (See app. E, table 8, for detailed breakdown of support.) Library support has been the largest of these items and has included expenditures both for book purchasing and for personnel to process the acquisitions. This item has accounted for from 12 to 15 percent of NDEA support and has been significant in enabling even those universities with large libraries to increase their collections dealing with non-Western areas to a point adequate for both instruction and research. For smaller institutions with less imposing libraries, library support has been even more important, undergirding them for new fields of instruction in both language and area. From the national viewpoint, the stimulus has been equally important in increasing the Nation's library resources in fields where research libraries are rare. The greatest weakness in the pattern of library growth is the shortage of library personnel with command of the uncommon languages. Efforts are being made both to provide library training for persons already in possession of the needed language skills and to strengthen the language component in library training, but the buildup to this combination of skills is necessarily slow.

A center, like any other administrative unit, involves organizational expenses that cannot easily be absorbed elsewhere in a university budget. The time of the center director is the most important single item within this category, for the functions of leadership and coordination are in most cases demanding in themselves and crucial for the program's success. The larger the program, the more directional and secretarial time is usually required. The tendency has been for the administrative item to increase, though it has thus far remained under 10 percent of the total allocation.

A minute portion of NDEA funds, about 1 percent in all, has gone for special events such as guest lectures, conferences, and colloquiums. The support given for outside lecturers has enabled centers to diversify their programs by inviting distinguished foreign and domestic scholars to lecture on their specialties. Conferences have usually been devoted to the exploration of, and sharing of experience about, the special problems of the various non-Western fields of study. And colloquiums or center seminars, whether limited to faculty or more broadly conceived, have often proved a useful device for welding together the disparate disciplinary viewpoints and departmental interests represented within a single program.

Overseas Activity

Another aspect of the burgeoning postwar emphasis on the international dimensions of education has been the acceptance, at all levels of training, of the benefits of study abroad. Direct overseas experience, while regarded as generally useful, is of particular importance to those specializing in non-Western language and area studies, especially at the graduate level. The beginner in language study may derive from residence in a non-Western country no benefits that he could not equally well obtain in the classroom and language laboratory at home. But the more advanced language student can hardly fail to profit from the opportunity to use and hear the language in question at every turn. And the student in any of the other area disciplines can obtain from overseas study advantages not available in the classroom at home.

Much the most important advantage of study abroad to language and area studies is the opportunity this affords candidates for advanced degrees to pursue research in their area of concern. It follows naturally that centers have shown a growing awareness of the benefits of the overseas aspect of their work, and that some have sought to increase the number of openings for individual students to acquire direct experience of their areas and languages. More far-reaching still have been the efforts by the centers to found institutional adjuncts abroad. The resulting overseas centers serve both students and faculty needs and promise to become an important feature of the language and area center programs.

Opportunities for study abroad by language and area center students have increased notably since the beginning of NDEA. Stanford University, for example, conducts in behalf of an inter-university group a Center of Japanese Studies in Tokyo and a Center of Chinese Studies in Taipei for qualified students, including National Defense Foreign Language Fellows. Students from the Luso-Brazilian Center at the University of Wisconsin have attended summer sessions at the University of Rio Grande do Sul in Porto Alegre, Brazil. The American Institute of Indian Studies is a means of fostering research in India by staff members of the institute's 27 member colleges and universities; senior fellows pursuing postdoctoral study, graduate students, and faculty fellows may avail themselves of institute facilities. A similar institute is being organized in Cairo—as in the case of the institute in India, through the State Department and with the use of counterpart funds—and is initially sponsored by several American colleges and universities, most of which possess NDEA centers of Middle Eastern studies.

There are also overseas programs supported by associations and foundations which students at language and area centers may use for the advancement of their language studies and degree programs. The Associated Colleges of the Midwest and the University of Wisconsin sponsor a year abroad in India for undergraduates of member colleges and universities. The Carnegie Corporation provides funds for the National Undergraduate Program for Study Abroad at Shimlan, on the outskirts of Beirut, Lebanon. The students are selected by Princeton University, through a national competition, for further intensive training in Arabic.

In this regard, Princeton University has originated a "fifth" year for its students. Princeton undergraduates who have had at least 2 years of a modern foreign language may go abroad for a year of study, not in place of one of the 4 undergraduate years but as an extra year. Another development at Princeton is a new program in which undergraduates from cooperating colleges may attend Princeton for a year in order to study the Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, and Turkish languages and related regional studies. This "junior year" program was designed to offer courses not available on the home campus to students from other liberal arts colleges. It was announced late in the spring of 1963 and had over a dozen students in 1963–64.

No less valuable in the overall scheme is the growing emphasis upon faculty travel abroad. This may involve either an actual exchange of faculty members between American and foreign institutions or simply the engagement of visiting faculty from abroad or the provision of opportunities for native American faculty to teach and pursue research abroad. Visiting scholars enrich and vary both the curriculum and intrafaculty relationships; and the overseas experience of a center's own faculty members is fed back into the program upon their return. As Robert Byrnes of Indiana University recently stated:

> The shrinking of the world, the nature of knowledge and of scholarship, and the quality of research completed in other countries all indicate that we must insure that at least our very best students leave our training centers fully qualified to enter the ranks of international scholarship.

This comment applies equally well to faculty members. One of the best means of strengthening the qualifications of both students and faculty members of the centers is to provide as many opportunities as possible for serious study and research abroad and for exposure in the centers here at home to the best scholars from abroad.

Title VI of the NDEA makes specific provision for foreign travel by center personnel, and support has consistently been allocated for this purpose under center contracts. This support has always been small, dropping to around 2 percent of available funds in 1963–64; but the number of center faculty that have gone abroad has been large—even though not reflected fully in center budgets owing to fiscal limitations. For 1963–64 the Office of Education, utilizing funds under the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act of 1961 (Fulbright-Hays Act) and acting in cooperation with the Department of State, made 23 travel awards to enable center faculty to go abroad and foreign scholars to come to NDEA centers.

An amplified program of awards for 1964–65 covering travel and subsistence for NDEA center personnel in accordance with Section 102(b)(6) of the Fulbright-Hays Act was administered entirely by the Office of Education. About 50 awards, of 2 to 12 months' duration and providing support at rates of as much as $15,000 per year, were made to selected faculty members at NDEA-supported centers for periods of study and research abroad.

This program of awards is designed to strengthen center operations by providing overseas research opportunities which could be planned by center directors on a long-range basis and in terms of the best interests and needs of the centers. The awards are thus conceived not merely as assistance to individuals, but as contributions to institutional programs, and are intended to meet acknowledged needs without disrupting center programs on campus.

The idea of an international community of scholarship turns attention again to the matter of language proficiency. It is undoubtedly highly important to have well-trained language teachers in both secondary and higher education, to have center graduates equipped for all types of service, whether at home or abroad, for which language skills are essential, and to have our scholars endowed with language proficiency sufficient to enable them to unlock the sources of research. But over and above this, the NDEA emphasis on language provides a basic undergirding for scholarly communication on a global basis. The entire centers program has enhanced American awareness of scholarly work produced in other countries and thus contributed to the interchange of ideas and research across national boundaries; at the same time it has helped to render foreign scholarship, both present and past, accessible to increasing numbers of American academicians.

The importance of this by-product of center activity lies not only in its contribution to the instructional and research capabilities of American higher education but also in its provision of a serious scholarly scaffolding for international exchange activities. A firm academic foundation for the educational and cultural exchange movement may well emerge in direct proportion to the growing strength and influence of the Nation's programs of non-Western studies.

Outlook

By way of summary, the first 5 years of the NDEA centers program have coincided with a general nationwide process of refinement and maturation of the concept of language and area studies. Partly because of Federal support, these studies have assumed a far more fixed and definite place in the curriculum. Thanks to foundation and Government cooperation with the universities, language study has assumed a proper position in equilibrium with other disciplines in preparation for area specialization. A language and area program has been defined as "a nexus among the several disciplines . . . drawing from them scholars who focus on a specific world region, each in his own fashion, and, in some instances, in collaboration." At once more modest but also more relevant to instructional needs than some of the early formulations concerning area studies, this center concept has won its place in American higher education. Its great contribution lies in the improved training of personnel needed by our society to deal effectively with the non-Western world.

The extent of graduate training and the number of graduate students in the critical languages have grown dramatically. The impact on the undergraduate level has been almost equally great. Summer intensive language programs have proliferated to the point that many of the uncommon languages are now commonly available.

On the strength of these achievements it becomes possible to delineate certain needs previously less clear—or even unknown. If what has been begun by the language development program is to become fully rooted, accomplishments so far are more useful as pointers to emerging needs and as stimuli to future planning than merely as evidence of the fulfillment of past directives and policies.

Under the language and area centers program valuable precedents have been set. The device of matching funds has been found useful; its preservation would continue to help make adequate means available to provide adequate instruction. The emphasis on graduate training was well chosen; it should continue to be the basis of future developments in the field. Summer intensive programs have helped to accelerate language learning as well as academic year programs; they, too, should be continued.

The national interest would be well served by enabling many of the present NDEA centers to expand as rapidly as the student demand and the availability of faculty specialists permit. Furthermore, conditions are ripe for the designation of a few additional and much-needed graduate centers, especially two or three in the African field but also one or two for Southeast Asia and Latin America. In these and other areas faculty talent is available and student interest has been awakened.

Similar conditions are becoming evident at the undergraduate level as well. Not only has the center concept included undergraduate instruction at all graduate centers but, in a modified version, it has proved applicable to the needs of those undergraduate colleges not associated with a graduate school. Here the Ford Foundation has given help and encouragement by providing funds for faculty seminars and by helping administrators to learn something about non-Western studies.

As the first 5 years of NDEA have shown, the centers program has made a substantial contribution to the undergraduate experience and has already provided some of the actual models. Originally only 4 of the present 55 centers were thought of as solely undergraduate centers. In 1959-60 the first of the four was established at the University of Kansas, a successful pioneer in this field. During the next academic year the remaining three were designated—at the University of Arizona, the State University of Iowa, and Portland State College in Oregon. Yet *all* centers offered courses for undergraduates. And some of those not originally thought of as undergraduate centers have still to award a Ph. D. degree. All this is but evidence that, although the centers program has focused on graduate study, undergraduates have also profited from it to almost as great a degree as graduate students.

An early and excellent example of how a large center combines all levels of students is the East Asian Language and Area Center at Columbia University. Under its leadership general education courses have been offered in the undergraduate college in the major civilizations of Asia and are taken usually by sophomores or juniors. Undergraduates may also major in oriental studies where emphasis is placed on appropriate language study as well as on some mastery of a single discipline. After a student receives his B.A., he may take regional or "area" work for the M.A., usually on a multidisciplinary basis, while continuing his work in the uncommon language. When a student with such a background becomes a Ph. D. candidate, he is able to do the specialized research demanded of him instead of taking basic, elementary courses in either language or area.

With refinements and modifications, the smaller undergraduate college may also provide a student with specialized training within the framework of the B.A. He may obtain a minimum of 2 years' study in an uncommon language as well as knowledge of a particular discipline. A unique example of such an institution is Portland State College where the Middle East Studies Center has successfully shown that area specialization and language learning go hand in hand with a liberal arts education, without apparent loss to either.

When considering the center concept and the undergraduate curriculum, it is obvious that certain valid and important conclusions have already been demonstrated and should be underscored: (1) For 5 years, all NDEA centers have been providing coursework for undergraduates. (2) During this same period, area studies have also frequently formed a part of general education in the undergraduate curriculum on many campuses. (3) Because language courses are normally open to undergraduates, more undergraduates than has been realized have taken uncommon languages presumably supported for graduate students. A survey made in the United States during the fall of 1960 showed that 75 percent of all enrollments for study of the Japanese language were undergraduate. Two years later it was also found that, of the total enrollments at all NDEA centers, 62.5 percent were undergraduate. (4) With the growing awareness and acceptance of the need for language competence among academicians, language teaching has arrived at a relatively high degree of sophistication which makes it possible to consider the addition at the undergraduate level of the appropriate non-Western languages along with non-Western studies. (5) Inclusion of all such non-Western courses in the undergraduate curriculum is indeed properly part of a liberal arts education.

Undergraduate development at two levels, one in connection with established graduate programs and the other at liberal arts colleges, can flourish only with outside support. Small colleges must compete with the universities for faculty. Someday, perhaps, there may be an adequate supply of teachers available. But the instructor of Chinese is needed *now*, as is the teacher of Indian or African history.

There are increasing opportunities to help train such teachers. Since many college administrators appear to be interested in helping scholars to develop area courses in their particular disciplines, retraining programs offer some hope that a shortcut does exist. In 1963, for instance, the Office of Education announced a pilot postdoctoral fellowship program for teachers at undergraduate colleges who wished to study an uncommon language and related area work. Over 35 applicants indicated an interest in taking an intensive summer program in uncommon language followed by a year's work at one of the NDEA language and area centers in 1964–65. Fourteen teachers were selected for these awards; their study commenced in June 1964.

With the inability of most undergraduate colleges to offer even elementary courses in an uncommon language, much less advanced work, there will be greater need to call upon the services of the larger centers. The "junior year" at Princeton, started in 1963–64 and described on p. 48, is an example of how existing resources can be utilized. But, most significant of all perhaps, there will be need to recognize and to use the more flexible summer programs to greater advantage then heretofore. One hundred National Defense Foreign Language Fellowships for summer intensive language work at the undergraduate level were offered in 1963; and the number was doubled for 1964. By these and other methods, including cooperation among colleges, some of the more specialized prerequisites for language and area instruction may be provided without undue pressure on the small college.

The liberal arts college not affiliated with a graduate school faces special problems in seeking to incorporate an appropriate measure of non-Western subject matter into its curriculum. For most such schools a language and area center modeled on the larger graduate programs is probably not the answer Only a few, such as the one at Portland State College, have been able to make the requisite commitment and to muster the necessary range of faculty skills. The majority of undergraduate colleges are still unable or unwilling to do this.

One approach that has been proposed, and is increasingly practiced, is to inject non-Western subject matter into existing course offerings. The shock of discovering that the three largest social science departments at one well-known New England college offered 94 separate courses, 88 of which were properly classified in a Western European-American cultural context, may be stimulus enough for colleges to begin doing something along these lines. While this requires some fortification of faculty competence and a buildup of library resources, on the surface little change in actual course listings or in the composition of the faculty is needed. But this is only the beginning and leads to another approach, one that is more demanding but still involves no distortion of the basic curriculum. A college may select one particular world region for concentration and begin the gradual development of a small staff, usually two or three faculty members, to teach the key language and to offer a few area courses directly bearing on the particular non-Western area. Such faculty seminars as have been encouraged by the Ford Foundation have often been a feature of this kind of action; but until a specific commitment to both language and area has been made, emphasis on non-Western affairs must be thought of as relatively unambitious.

A favored means of providing such a program without weakening college resources has been the collaboration of several neighboring colleges in providing students with language and area work. Examples of such cooperative arrangements include: The Great Lakes Colleges Association whose 12 member colleges divide the task of providing instruction in non-Western languages and area subjects; the Connecticut Valley collaboration among the University of Massachusetts, Mount Holyoke, Amherst, and Smith; and the Hill Center of Area Studies which involves four colleges in St. Paul, Minn.

A further variation on the cooperative theme, indicating the manner in which large graduate centers can assist the liberal arts colleges, was the so-called "flying carpet" arrangement in 1962–63, whereby members of the South Asia Language and Area Center at the University of Chicago lectured on India at Haverford, Bryn Mawr, and Swarthmore.

A survey conducted by the Association of American Colleges in 1962 showed that more than half its members, about 400 colleges, had already made *some* move in the direction of non-Western studies and that language training was often included, especially Russian. Coupled with the report of the Committee on the College and World affairs, a second survey made by the association during the academic year 1963–64 will allow the undergraduate demand to be more precisely analyzed. With increasing manpower needs, however, it is already clear that only a coupling of the undergraduate effort with the continuation of graduate programs will suffice to maintain the momentum that NDEA has so largely helped to generate.

Most instruction in the uncommon languages still has to occur at the college level or beyond, and such instruction must, if it is to be effective for serious purposes, be intensive and therefore time consuming. As William Riley Parker, author of *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*, has said: "We have somehow never learned . . . that sufficient time *must* be allowed the language learning process if anything like functional proficiency is going to result." It is still not understood that it takes as long to make an area specialist—one who has learned the requisite languages—as it does to make a doctor or lawyer. Given the present limitations on the amount of language instruction that can be packed into the undergraduate years, the most promising development for the immediate future is the summer language program.

Until our educational system becomes so sophisticated in the matter of language that graduate schools and centers can take proficiency for granted, at least in the 1, 2, or 3 languages that might be needed for area specialization, summer programs afford the best available means of helping students to meet ever-increasing requirements and thus protecting them from continued prolongation of graduate study. Only when students begin to obtain this language competence earlier in their academic careers will their need to use summers for this purpose during graduate study decrease. At that point, summer language programs will have a correspondingly increased capacity for serving undergraduates. But this day is not yet in sight.

The following 5 challenges still face the language and area centers program: (1) The scarcity of fully competent teachers of the critical languages; (2) the still limited number of specialized courses in the several disciplines which constitute area work; (3) the continued need to strengthen research at centers; (4) the lack of any language program aimed directly at the college level; and (5) the need to reinforce the interlocking features (fellowships, research, and centers) of language development.

The Scarcity of Language Teachers

At most graduate language and area centers the teachers of Japanese, Chinese, Russian, Arabic, and many other languages come from the country in which the language is spoken. (Of course, this is always true of native informants.) In addition an amazingly high proportion of the American specialists at these centers were born or trained abroad. As long as these and other programs can draw upon such groups, there is no crisis and certainly no complaint. But such a fortunate condition cannot be depended upon to last indefinitely. It is therefore important to make certain that American students can and will master the uncommon languages to the point where they can form the next generation of language teachers. Evidence exists that some students are training for such a career; but the trend is neither so rapid nor numerically so strong as it should be.

About 60 percent of title VI graduate fellows take their degrees in one or another of the area disciplines (excluding literature) while learning the uncommon language or languages of their choice. The balance major in languages, but usually this means their emphasis is on literature. It cannot be determined exactly what this latter group will elect to do, but it is safe to assume that few will remain language teachers. Generally speaking, most able teachers escape from the mundane chore of teaching languages by taking refuge in literary scholarship or, lately, linguistics. Good language teachers at the university level have always been scarce, for the prestige value is low, the monotony high, and the particular abilities rare.

Part of the difficulty in getting students to become teachers of language may be attributed to the development of linguistics. Without any doubt linguistics, as it has been practiced since World War II by the present generation of linguists, has provided the new students of language with tools they badly needed, and linguistics helps to lure able students into language. Like literature, linguistics has become an interesting and scholarly way into the art of language. But linguists usually do not become language teachers.

A problem still more basic perhaps is the difficulty not infrequently faced by language teachers and their departments in securing promotions and tenure. To the extent that excellence in teaching languages is independent of the research and publications often regarded as necessary credentials for promotion, potential language teachers have apparently been deterred from entering a field in which rewards seem remote.

Whatever the causes, the American graduate student is not often attracted to language teaching. That he should not be diverted from his desire to become a historian or a linguist or a philosopher goes without saying. But still every effort must be made to find the language teachers the country needs. Undergraduate programs may, by reaching a wider range of students earlier, prove to be a major factor in the solution of this problem.

Improved Representation of the Area Disciplines

Although the future may bring shifts and realignments in area focus, disciplinary participation, and center organization, and will almost certainly see the addition of the still neglected world regions and languages, the validity of the center concept has been recognized. The day is apparently past when the traditional disciplines could feel that area studies might either challenge their preeminence as focal points of training for advanced degrees or threaten the rigor of academic standards by diluting requirements. The disciplines have maintained their position in connection with most advanced degrees, and language and area centers have in fact only imposed more strenuous requirements on students by adding their standards to those of the disciplines rather than substituting one set for another.

There have been significant gains for faculty and students alike in the association promoted by the centers among practitioners of the several disciplines. The concept of area studies, mainly fostered in the early postwar years by the social sciences, has grown more meaningful by the addition of language as an essential ingredient. It is hardly possible any longer to conceive of an area specialist who is not in command of at least some portion of the language tools he needs for his teaching and research. By the same token, the integration of studies around the center's geographical focus is exposing language teachers and specialists more and more to the insights of the social sciences. Both language and area specialists are gaining a larger and more effective framework.

At the same time it is surprising how relatively few disciplines are playing a major role in the work of the centers. Along with language teaching and linguistics, the fields most often involved in the area approach are history, literature, political science (and international relations), anthropology, geography, sociology, and economics. The last two are perhaps weaker than the rest in the overall picture. But such fields as education, law, social psychology, archaeology, philosophy, social work, public health, comparative religion, art and music history, folklore, and even the natural sciences have an obvious relevance far in excess of their occasional involvement in center programs. It is unlikely that these and other disciplines or the centers themselves will continue to ignore the manifold possibilities for constructive interaction. Indeed there are already signs of an increase in the number of disciplines and professional fields participating in center programs

Strengthening Center Research

Another aspect of the language and area centers program, as it has developed, is research activity. It is impossible to identify precisely the trends or tendencies in research that are directly attributable to the centers. The growing volume of scholarly output dealing with the non-Western world is quite evident, and a goodly share of it comes from the faculty and graduates of centers. But since the academic community has never evolved a generally accepted formula for area research that would enlist and depend upon the multiple skills of a typical center staff working in concert, research remains largely an individual matter.

Although it is difficult to differentiate between research identified in some sense with the centers and research carried on elsewhere, certain general conclusions are warranted. The research under-written by title VI funds, so far largely devoted to the production of essential tools for instruction in the critical languages, has been conducted to a large extent in the NDEA centers. The very possibility of finding the skills appropriate for such research has depended in part on the awareness of language needs fostered in the centers and on the gathering of these skills for center purposes.

Beyond this limited range of research, the centers represent a growing American capacity for scholarly contributions to the understanding of the non-Western world. Whether or not this capacity is expended in explicitly multidisciplinary group projects is less important than the intrinsic features of a center's composition. The focusing of varied disciplinary backgrounds and viewpoints on a geographically circumscribed area of center concern permits, indeed encourages, the application of the same varied viewpoints to a given research problem. The historian's work is subject to assessment not by his fellow historians alone, but also by economists and anthropologists likewise interested in his topic. And the sociologist will be criticized by political scientists and geographers as well as by other sociologists. So long as the most pressing research problems—such as those of economic development, international communication, processes of modernization, and the like—continue to occur on the boundaries of the traditional disciplines, just such interpenetration of disciplinary skills and methods as the centers offer will be necessary to significant scholarship and will, in the final analysis, strengthen the disciplines themselves by making their unique contributions more relevant to the concerns of the entire scholarly community.

The Problem of Language at the College Level

The attack on the problem of modern foreign language learning, as it originated in the American Council of Learned Societies, the Modern Language Association of America, and at certain universities has tended to become bifurcated. Because of given needs and specific opportunities for action, the effort has had its principal effects at the secondary level and at the graduate level. Title VI of NDEA is itself an illustration of this divided approach. Summer institutes for elementary and secondary school language teachers, along with improved textbooks and teaching materials, have made the chief contribution at the lower level; and the center and fellowship programs have concentrated on graduate training.

Before considering language at the college or undergraduate level, however, a distinction must be made. As has been shown, many undergraduates are learning the uncommon languages at the presently established language and area centers; for instance, in the fall semester 1962, over 60 percent of the students taking one or more courses in the uncommon languages were undergraduates. Most of these undergraduates, however, were not in the small undergraduate colleges but the large universities. When speaking of language learning at the college level, the emphasis here is on the thousand or so liberal arts colleges not normally associated with graduate work.

The college or undergraduate level, even in this narrower definition of the term, has assuredly not failed to profit from the general situation. Indeed, the aforementioned efforts aimed at high school and graduate students have consistently affected the liberal arts colleges, which have benefited from the improved preparation of incoming students, from new teaching materials, and from course offerings which could only exist because of the presence of faculty members trained in some phase of non-Western studies. But the college student has not yet been the object of any massive effort in the uncommon languages or in non-Western studies.

While much that is needed here must be provided by other means, it would be a logical next step for the language and area centers program to offer some of the stimulus needed to enable the colleges to undertake the curricular expansion in non-Western studies for which they have shown a clear desire. A parallel step might well be the extension of summer language institutes to serve college teachers. Not only would this constitute an absolute gain on the uncommon language front; it would also help to complete the continuum of non-Western languages and subject matter running through the various educational stages. Such a development would substantially fortify the position of existing graduate centers as regards student recruitment.

The Interlocking Elements of Language Development

The entire language development program authorized under title VI of NDEA is implemented by the Office of Education through four subprograms of institutes, fellowships, research, and centers. Because these are functionally different and have rather disparate modes of operation, it is not always evident to what degree they interlock and reinforce each other.

The NDEA institutes for elementary and secondary school teachers form the most nearly separate and self-contained program of the four. But they touch the center program at several points. Several of the languages with which the institutes are concerned—Russian, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, and Hebrew—are of equal concern to the centers. Moreover the institute format has lent itself to partial adaptation for the special purposes of summer intensive language programs at NDEA centers. The format would surely have equal relevance if the future were to bring an expanded authorization for similar programs to upgrade college language teachers' qualifications, whether conducted at NDEA centers or elsewhere. Most important of all, the institutes, by using university faculty on the college campus for instruction in modern methods of language learning, have provided a major if still inadequate link between secondary school and university language teachers.

NDEA-supported research in both the common and the uncommon languages has been unprecedented in its impact on language instruction at all educational levels. Its interaction with the centers program has been both manifold and apparent. Center faculty members have been responsible for much of the preparation of instructional materials—grammars, readers, and dictionaries—in the uncommon languages. Center classes and the specialized skills gathered at centers have been used to test and refine text materials devised under the research program. On the other hand, the research program has acted as a valuable spur to centers, both by providing support for teachers in fields expensive to maintain owing to still modest enrollments and by stimulating center research in languages and linguistics to a higher degree of output and effectiveness.

The title VI fellowship program is even more closely bound up with the centers. Of the 2,027 individuals awarded fellowships from 1959–60 through 1963–64, roughly 70 percent studied at NDEA centers. These fellowships have been indispensable to the growth and improvement of language and area center programs.

Two sets of special awards have further linked the fellowship and centers programs. Both the title VI summer fellowships for undergraduates with advanced standing in certain uncommon languages and the postdoctoral awards for faculty members from liberal arts colleges wishing to strengthen their non-Western offerings in language and area work have been tied directly to the NDEA centers. Undergraduate awards have been assigned to centers offering the appropriate languages in their supported summer programs, and the applicants have been screened at the centers. Similarly, candidates for the postdoctoral awards have submitted their applications to the center programs of their choice for transmission, with recommendations, to the Office of Education.

Thus language and area centers have never been isolated from the rest of the language development program, nor were they so conceived—either by the Congress in its enactment, or by the Office of Education in its implementation, of NDEA. At the same time in the early years, while the terrain of language development was still largely unmapped and the needs were of gross proportions, the four programs could proceed in semiautonomy to attack the most pressing and obvious problems. However, as these programs have grown both in scope and refinement, it has become increasingly necessary to coordinate planning among them and thus take fuller account of their interrelationships. The needs of higher, particularly graduate, education in non-Western studies have not diminished; but they have taken on greater definition and subtlety. This imposes on the language development program a still greater necessity to keep its several components in concert. The graduate schools will continue to make the deepest imprint on American education. To the extent that three of the programs—fellowships, research, and centers—succeed in correlating their efforts at the graduate level, to that extent will they have their greatest impact.

Conclusion

Language and area centers have been described as a product of the well-nigh revolutionary awakening of American higher education to the non-Western world. As such, they have tended to concentrate their attention on graduate education, simply because the first and continuing need has been to strengthen faculty resources for increasing non-Western curricular offerings to growing numbers of students.

The centers may also be viewed in the wider setting of the nationwide shift of American interest and concern at all educational levels to the world overseas. Thus at the graduate level centers for international studies emerged more or less concurrently with the development of area centers. Indeed several NDEA centers are either lodged within or closely related to such international studies programs. It is logical to expect such relationships to prosper, owing to the complementary nature of the two approaches. In addition it is coming to be realized that study of the growing complexity of formal and informal diplomatic relationships among nations requires a multipronged academic instrument. In this respect particularly, the language and area centers have a greater range of disciplinary involvement than the international studies programs and hence have much to offer the latter in breadth of approach.

In general, however, international studies have not been as preoccupied with the graduate level as have area studies. Interest in international affairs has largely affected the undergraduate curriculum and has also been strongly felt in secondary schools and in adult education. So far as language and area programs have been designed to foster a high degree of specialization, including competence in critical languages for which teaching personnel are still in short supply, they have tended to remain clustered at the graduate level rather than to follow international studies down the educational ladder. Yet it has been acknowledged that language and area programs too can be adapted to different objectives, that they can in fact contribute to the richness of undergraduate curriculums and even with modifications, to still less specialized levels of instruction. All indications are that international studies and language and area studies will continue to develop hand in hand, the more so as the center concept is taken over and developed at the small undergraduate college.

The aspects of center programs at the universities which lend themselves to the interests of the wider community, that is, to adult or continuing education, are assuredly not the most crucial ones. But many NDEA centers have consciously made selected features of their programs available to the community by means of public lectures, exhibitions, informal social occasions, and formal coursework. Such services may be less important in terms of volume or numbers reached than in their substitution of soundly based academic offerings for the too frequent emphasis on the merely exotic.

Government and business as well as academic institutions have all benefited as the concept of language and area studies has evolved and NDEA language and area centers have continued to grow. Notable gains have been made in trained manpower. More uncommon modern foreign languages are being taught—and taught better—to more students. More area specialists have been trained and are now available. The center concept has registered an impact on people as well as ideas. Perhaps the greatest gain, difficult to measure at this stage of history, has been the effect of both the center concept and the centers program on non-Western studies generally and, in turn, on the liberal arts.

In spite of all this, however, there is every indication that the continuance of Federal funds for non-Western studies is as essential today as was the initial stimulation provided by the Congress in 1958. The very nature of the National Defense Education Act suggested, subject of course to subsequent legislative action, not a shot-in-the-arm approach but a long-term attack on a problem of unknown magnitude and duration. While the needs have increased, they have also become more susceptible of treatment.

The first 5 years of the centers program have disclosed a viable method of dealing with certain national needs heretofore undefined. In this short time it has been shown how Federal funds, given for purposes of instruction, may allow institutions of higher education to serve national along with academic goals without jeopardizing either. At the same time, this emphasis on the affairs of the non-Western world has given a major challenge to a cultural bias which the country can no longer afford.

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APPENDIX A

U.S. Office of Education Policy Bulletins on the NDEA Language and Area Centers Program

Bulletin 1 March 10, 1959

To: All Persons Interested in Language and Area Centers

From: L. G. Derthick, U.S. Commissioner of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Subject: A Statement of Policy
Language Development Program
Centers and Research and Studies

As a basis for the establishment of federally supported language and area centers the U.S. Commissioner of Education is required by section 601(a) of Public Law 85–864 to determine (1) the modern foreign languages "needed" by individuals in the Federal Government, business and industry, and education in the United States (hereinafter "needed languages"), and (2) of these languages, which ones are not now "readily available" in terms of "adequate instruction" (hereinafter "critical languages").

Needed Languages

Although linguistic needs are to some extent unpredictable, and even recognized ones are relative, there is clearly a present, continuing need for individuals trained in the national or "official" languages of all the sovereign nations with which the United States has business or diplomatic relations, and also in some of the unofficial languages spoken by many millions of inhabitants of a foreign country or territory.

Determining the *priority* of needs, not only in Government, business, and industry, but also in education in the United States, is another matter. Priorities vary with time and circumstances. Nevertheless, without attempting a complete list, and recognizing the necessity for a thorough, continuing survey, it seems evident that, among the languages now *most needed* by American citizens, are Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hindustani, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish.

Critical Languages

However, federally supported language and area centers are to teach "needed languages" which are not now "readily available" in terms of "adequate instruction." Pending further study, and despite some criticism of current teaching methods and objectives, these criteria would seem to eliminate French, German, Italian, and Spanish as languages to be taught at the centers to be established. Instruction in these four languages is widely available. Much of it is adequate. Insofar as it is still inadequate to national needs, the remedy lies largely in the recognition of those needs by educational administrators and by language teachers themselves.

Determining "adequacy" of instruction is a complicated matter involving, not merely methods and objectives, but also the availability of properly trained teachers and the effectiveness and availability of such indispensable *instructional materials* as (1) a basic course, with an elementary textbook and tapes for oral practice, (2) a reference grammar, based on a sound structural analysis of the language, (3) a set of graded readers with useful content, and (4) a contemporary dictionary suitable for student use.

For many of the important languages of the world, including a number of "official" languages with many millions of speakers, *none of these essential instructional tools now exist* for English-speaking students. In other cases, one or two such tools exist but the others are lacking. In still other cases, materials exist but the teachers who must use them question their reliability and effectiveness. In sum, the provisions of section 602 of Public Law 85-864, authorizing the development of specialized teaching materials, are indispensable to the implementation of section 601, which authorizes the establishment of centers. No amount of money spent on the hiring of teachers of critical languages can produce "adequate instruction" that is "readily available" until effective instructional materials are first produced. The Congress was therefore wise in recognizing "research and studies" as a corollary of the establishment of centers.

The Office of Education has been helped in its initial planning by a quick, preliminary study conducted, under contract, by the American Council of Learned Societies. This survey did not concern itself with the important matter of area study programs, which must therefore be the subject of later surveys. It attempted, instead, to ascertain as quickly as possible the *language* needs of Government, business and industry, and education, and to review the current situation, in regard to personnel and instructional materials, in the teaching of all the needed languages. The report revealed enough alarming facts about our present linguistic deficiencies to make clear the need for a further, more thorough survey, to be followed by periodic stocktaking of our resources and requirements.

The national problem of achieving "adequate instruction" in critical languages will meanwhile, therefore, have to be attacked *simultaneously on several different fronts*. It is not simply a matter of establishing centers in as many languages (and related areas) as funds will permit. Title VI of the National Defense Education Act is explicitly a contracting, not a grant-giving program. The implementation of sections 601 and 602 will therefore develop simultaneously along the following three lines, the *extent* of development in each to be determined by the funds appropriated.

1. For some languages where the evident need is for relatively large numbers of trained persons, *a number of centers for each language* must be expanded and strengthened or, when necessary, created, in order to make adequate instruction

more widely available. Six languages which, at the outset, will be considered as belonging in this category are: *Arabic* (in its chief dialects, and with the modern written language stressed), *Chinese* (in its chief dialects, with Mandarin given the highest priority), *Hindustani* (or Hindi-Urdu), *Japanese, Porguguese,* and *Russian.* Hindustani is the only one of these six "critical languages" which is not currently taught in at least 20 American colleges and universities. Russian is the most widely taught of these, but it seems doubtful that the instruction is yet adequate to the needs. One reason is the current movement to introduce Russian into American secondary schools; Russian will therefore figure also in the Institutes program under title VI.

Federally supported centers in the six critical languages listed above should achieve certain objectives at present lacking in the case of all of them. Among these goals are (a) *intensive courses* available frequently and at geographically distributed locations, (b) the production of several complete sets of reliable and effective *teaching materials,* and (c) adequate instruction in related *area studies.* At centers in this category there should also be variety in the length of intensive courses, and in the content of intermediate and advanced courses, so as to provide training for various kinds of assignment and at various levels of competence.

For reasons explained in the section below, centers in this first category will be encouraged to add other critical languages which are linguistically related or have significance in the area program.

2. For other languages where the evident need is for smaller numbers of trained persons, *at least two* geographically separated centers should be strengthened or, when necessary, created. Needed languages which, at the outset, will be considered as belonging in this second category fall into two groups: (a) the remaining national or "official" languages of sovereign nations, and (b) a small group of unofficial languages spoken by many millions of inhabitants of a nation or territory. Examples of the latter group are *Javanese* (spoken by approximately 42 million in Indonesia, where the "official" language is Indonesian) and several widely used African languages such as *Hausa* (13 million) and *Swahili* (10 million). Examples of "official" languages are *Afrikaans* (Union of South Africa), *Cambodian* (Cambodia), *Laotian* (Laos), *Pashto* (Afghanistan; Pakistan), *Singhalese* (Ceylon), and *Tagalog* (Philippines)—none of which seems to be currently taught in any American university—as well as *Amharic* (Ethiopia), *Burmese* (Burma), *Bengali* (Pakistan; India), *Tamil* (Ceylon; India), *Thai* (Thailand), and others taught at only a few institutions.

With the present uncertainty about the extent of financial support to be provided by the Congress, the most efficient way of coping with the 40 to 50 "needed languages" in this category is not yet clear. Ideally, for each there should be at least *annual* availability of intensive courses (with provision for language-and-area training beyond the basic course) continuing to intermediate and advanced study. Ideally, for each there should also be at least two geographically separated centers in language and area, for the training of experts and teachers, for research, and for the preparation (in a number of instances) of a complete set of basic instructional materials.

Further study should enable us to proceed wisely with available funds by establishing priorities within this category. For some of these languages it may also prove most efficient to have a single major center for advanced, intensive training and the education of experts, and several "minor" centers offering only the basic course in the language. Moreover, it seems probable that many of the languages in this category can be taught along with other languages of a common geographical area or culture, or with languages of the same linguistic family. Thus, a federally supported center in Near Eastern languages and area might offer intensive instruction, not only in Arabic, but also in Turkish, Kurdish, Berber, Pashto, Persian, and modern Hebrew.

3. For still other languages where the evident need is for even smaller numbers of trained persons, but where the need may someday be greater and urgent, we should look now to the strengthening of, or, as will be necessary in most cases, the *creation* of our linguistic resources. The languages in this category perhaps fall into two groups, depending upon funds available.

For some of them there should be at least *one* center in the language and area (or involving the language among others in its area program), offering at least *biennially* an intensive course, and with resources to guarantee greater frequency in an emergency. Such a center should also prepare basic instructional materials as needed. Examples of languages in this group are *Azerbaijani* (U.S.S.R.), *Ilocano* and *Visayan* (Philippines), *Quechuan* (Bolivia; Eduador; Peru), *Yoruba* (western Africa), *Tibetan, Mongolian,* and a number of languages of India, such as *Gujerati, Kanarese, Malayalam,* and *Nepali.* Only a few of the languages in this group are now taught in any American university.

Also depending upon funds available, for other languages there is need, not so much for a center in the sense hitherto used, but rather for a center of basic research, leading to preparation of instructional materials which might be required in an emergency. Presumably an important factor in the establishment of such a center would be standby availability of personnel for teaching. Examples of languages in this group are *Twi-Fanti* (west Africa), the Berber dialects (north Africa), *Byelorussian* and *Georgian* (U.S.S.R.), *Kashmiri* and *Oriya* (India), and many others not now taught in any American university.

At least 50 languages, each spoken by more than 2 million people (14 of them spoken by between 10 and 42 million), are not now taught in any American institution of higher education. It may seem impractical to try to teach (or get ready to teach) all of them, in addition to improving instruction in those already taught. But the real question, in view of the rush of events and the contracting of time and space, is whether the United States can afford *not* to make the attempt.

Bulletin 2 June 17, 1959

To: All Persons Interested in Language and Area Centers

From: L. G. Derthick, U.S. Commissioner of Education
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Subject:
A Statement of Policy
Language Development Program
Centers and Research and Studies

This is a sequel to a Statement of Policy on the same subject dated March 10, 1959.

As a basis for the establishment of federally supported language and area centers the U.S. Commissioner of Education is required by section 601(a) of Public Law 85-864 to determine (1) the modern foreign languages "needed" by individuals in the Federal Government, business and industry, and education in the United States, and (2) of these languages, which ones are not now "readily available" in terms of "adequate instruction."

In the earlier Statement of Policy it was determined that six "critical languages" would, at the outset of the Language Development Program, be given highest priority. These six are: *Arabic* (in its chief dialects, and with the modern written language stressed), *Chinese* (in its chief dialects, with Mandarin stressed), *Hindustani* (or Hindi-Urdu), *Japanese, Portuguese,* and *Russian.* The choice of these six critical languages followed recommendations growing out of a survey, conducted under contract with the Office of Education, by the American Council of Learned Societies.

In making the determination required by law, however, it was emphasized that, pending further study of our nation's linguistic resources and requirements, the implementation of sections 601 and 602 of the National Defense Education Act would develop *simultaneously on three different lines,* the extent of development in each to be determined by the funds appropriated. More can now be said about the second category discussed in the earlier Statement of Policy.

It was explained that, beyond the six languages given highest priority, for *other* languages, where the evident need is for smaller numbers of trained persons, centers should also be strengthened or, when necessary, created. Such other languages, it was further said, fall into two groups: (a) the remaining national or "official" languages of sovereign nations, and (b) a small group of unofficial languages spoken by many millions of inhabitants of a nation or region. It remained, however, to establish priorities among the 40 to 50 needed languages in this category.

Thanks now to study by the staff of the Language Development Section and it consultants, and thanks to helpful recommendations made by groups of specialists representing various language families, determination of additional priorities can be at least provisionally made. For purposes of implementing sections 601 and 602 of title VI, the following critical languages will be considered as having second highest priority:

Bengali (India; Pakistan)
Burmese (Burma)
Finnish (Finland)
(modern) Hebrew (Israel)
Hungarian (Hungary)
Indonesian-Malay (Indonesia)
Khalkha (Outer Mongolia)
Korean (Korea)
Marathi (India)
Persian (Iran; Afghanistan)
Polish (Poland)
Serbo-Croatian (Yugoslavia)
Singhalese (Ceylon)
Swahili (East Africa)
Tamil (Ceylon; India)
Telugu (India)
Thai (Thailand)
Turkish (Turkey)

It should be emphasized that this list of 18 languages (like that of the 6 languages of highest priority) is tentative and provisional, announced only to clarify the implementation of title VI in its first stages. Later it may be necessary to take such steps as moving Portuguese from the first to the second category, or moving Bengali from the second to the first. Moreover, after further study the above list of 18 may have to be either reduced or augmented by the inclusion of such languages as Amharic (Ethiopia), Dutch, modern Greek, Hausa (Central and West Africa), Icelandic, Pashto (Afghanistan; Pakistan), Tagalog (Philippines), or Vietnamese (Viet-Nam).

The earlier Statement of Policy gave the staff of the Language Development Section some flexibility in following these priorities while contracting for the establishment of centers. It was there recognized that a center might offer instruction, not only in a high priority critical language, but also in other critical languages which are linguistically related or have significance in the related "area" program. Thus, one of the first centers actually established will offer instruction in Hindi-Urdu (first priority), Marathi (second priority), and Gujerati (not yet classified, but a language spoken by about 20 million people in India).

It is perhaps appropriate to reiterate the criteria recognized for centers in the first and second priority categories. Federally supported centers in the six most critical languages should achieve, among other goals, (a) *intensive courses* available frequently and at geographically distributed locations, (b) the production of several complete sets of reliable and effective *teaching materials*, and (c) adequate instruction in related *area studies*. At centers in this category there should also be variety in the length of intensive courses, and in the content of intermediate and advanced courses, so as to provide training for various kinds of assignment and at various levels of competence.

Federally supported centers in the second priority languages should, ideally, offer *at least annually* intensive courses (with provision for language-and-area training beyond the basic course) continuing to intermediate and advanced study. For each such language there should also be at least *two geographically separated centers* in language and area, for the training of experts and teachers, for research, and for the preparation (in a number of instances) of a complete set of basic instructional materials.

Subsequent bulletins will not only determine additional priorities (and perhaps modify those now announced) but also make clearer the implementation of the *third* category of languages spoken of in the initial Statement of Policy: those evidently needed today by even smaller numbers of trained persons, but upon which much *research* is needed lest an urgent demand for instruction in them catch us totally, even tragically, unprepared.

Bulletin 3 December 1, 1959

To: All Persons Interested in Language and Area Centers

From: Kenneth W. Mildenberger, Acting Chief, Language Development Section, U.S. Office of Education

Subject: Language and Area Centers: The Curriculum

A shrinking world has brought the United States into closer contact with other nations than it has ever been before. Closer contact demands of us the understanding of other peoples and their cultures on a vastly increased scale. Our effective communication with them presupposes language competence on the part of scholars, Government officials, businessmen, and all others whose work reflects these increased contacts. It is one of the functions of language and area centers to provide the language competencies and the cultural understanding of other peoples.

A language and area center should afford the student an opportunity to learn to understand, speak, read, and, for those languages with alphabetical writing systems, to write the language with which he is concerned. It should also provide him with the means of studying the behavior, both present and past, of the people who speak it, as well as the factors which have influenced such behavior, and the system of values by which it is judged. Control of the language is the basis of an intimate and integrated knowledge of a culture in all its many aspects.

In order to realize these aims, centers for the high priority languages should have a battery of language courses organized on three levels: elementary, intermediate, and advanced. For languages of a less critical nature, the offerings need not be quite so extensive, but the potential for a full-scale operation should be developed. In view of the national need which the National Defense Education Act is designed to meet, at least the elementary course should be intensive, stressing the audio-lingual (or aural-oral) approach. As the transition to the study of written materials is achieved, the student should be confronted with authentic material from the language itself.[1]

It is recognized that, for the great majority of the world's languages, trained and experienced instructors are not available, and that native competence in a language is not in itself a sufficient qualification for teaching that language. The use of native speakers, while desirable, will ideally be supplemented and guided by a specialist in descriptive linguistics and language pedagogy. The earlier and more rapidly proficiency in the language is attained, the more rewarding area studies will become.

The subjects providing a full understanding of the areas, regions, or countries in which a language is used were considered by the National Defense Education Act itself to include "such fields as history, political science, linguistics, economics, sociology, geography, and anthropology." This listing was not meant to be exhaustive. Literature, art, music, education, religion, philosophy, and law might be added. Subjects such as these, dealing with a particular nation or people, may be organized as separate units, may be grouped, or may even be synthesized in a single seminar or integrated course. The important consideration is that there be enough of them to provide a well-rounded view, including the contributions of both the humanities and the social sciences. Insofar as possible the medium of presenting these will be the target language of the learner. Whenever feasible the curriculum should include a stay in the country where the language is used, in order to assure a more complete understanding of both language and area.

A language and area center of the highest quality will also carry on research which is characterized by the same sort of integration and cross-fertilization among the various disciplines that should be evident in the course work. This is not, of course, intended to suggest that the researcher should not be firmly grounded in a specific discipline. It is important that both the teaching and the research programs of a center reflect the ideal of a community of scholars.

Language and area curricula in the *undergraduate* college pose a number of special problems. Although there are notable exceptions, in many institutions it is difficult for the student to embark upon such study before the beginning of his junior year. This may result in his acquiring the language at the same time that he takes work in the area, whereas it would be more desirable if he began his language study first. Moreover, area work is quite likely to be given in an integrated fashion, but it must necessarily follow some basic work in the disciplines involved, again tending to delay the student's entrance into his field of concentration. Despite these difficulties, it must be recognized that advanced language and area work in graduate centers cannot attain optimum effectiveness unless there are opportunities for prospective students to be recruited and given preliminary training at the undergraduate level.

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[1] For some areas of the world, where there is no single official or major indigenous language, a more flexible sort of proficiency may be a valid goal. A semi-intensive course might be offered in one important language, possibly supplemented by an introduction to one or more additional languages, and/or instruction in the language typology of the area and in principles of acquiring limited competence in a new language by oneself.

For large universities, the principal problem in connection with developing and carrying on language and area work is that of cooperation and coordination among the many people who represent the various disciplines. In small colleges the difficulty may well arise through inadequacy of staff and the inability to secure and maintain enough persons who are expert in the various aspects of the region in question. Here some thought may well be given to the possibility of combining or integrating the resources of two or more nearby institutions. In most institutions there is without question an obvious necessity for building up library resources in the area to be studied.

In summary, the characteristics of a successful language and area program may be stated as follows:

1) A clearly defined geographical area.
2) For this area, attention to both language and related area study.
3) In the area study, inclusion of both humanities and social sciences.
4) Interrelated programs of research and instruction.
5) An adequate library in the languages and materials relevant to the area of study.
6) Long-term institutional backing for the program.

Bulletin 4 June 1, 1961

To: All Persons Interested in Language and Area Centers

From: Sterling M. McMurrin, U.S. Commissioner of Education,
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Subject: Determination that Latin American Spanish is Eligible for Financial Aid under Title VI, Section 601(a) of NDEA

Background

As a basis for the establishment of federally supported language and area centers the Commissioner of Education is required by section 601(a) of Public Law 85-864 to determine (1) the modern foreign languages "needed" by individuals in the Federal Government, business and industry, and education in the United States, and (2) of these languages, which ones are not now "readily available" in terms of "adequate instruction."

Although linguistic needs are to some extent unpredictable, and even recognized ones are relative, there is clearly a present, continuing need for individuals trained in one of the national or "official" languages of all the sovereign nations with which the United States has business or diplomatic relations, and also in some of the unofficial languages whether because of considerable numbers of speakers, cultural significance, strategic geographical location, or other reasons. Obviously, any determination of United States needs for persons trained in specific languages must involve a scale of priorities which will vary with time and circumstances. Certainly among languages which are now most needed by American citizens are Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hindi-Urdu, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish.

However, under terms of section 601(a) "need" is only one dimension for determining the eligibility of a language for support at a language and area center. Additionally, the language must not now be "readily available" in terms of "adequate instruction." Accordingly, earlier announcements have designated Arabic, Chinese, Hindi-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese, and Russian as languages requiring special attention under the language and area center program, and 77 other languages have been designated eligible for support. Regarding certain notable omissions from this list of eligible languages, an announcement of March 10, 1959 stated:

> Pending further study, and despite some criticism of current teaching methods and objectives, these criteria would seem to eliminate French, German, Italian, and Spanish as languages to be taught at the centers to be established. Instruction in these four languages is widely available. Much of it is adequate. Insofar as it is still inadequate to national needs, the remedy lies largely in the recognition of those needs by educational administrators and by language teachers themselves.

Time, events, and circumstances have dictated a reappraisal of the position of Spanish in regard to support in language and area centers.

Latin America and Its Languages

The significance of Latin America to the national interest was recognized from the beginning of the NDEA when Portuguese, the national language of Brazil with its population of 65 million and its great natural potential, was designated eligible for center support. Two Portuguese language and area centers have been established, and title VI graduate fellowships have been awarded for advanced study of Portuguese and related studies.

Spanish is the national language of some 18 Latin American countries with an estimated population of 100 million. Several Amerindian languages play important roles, notably Quechua, with four to five million speakers in Argentina, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia, and Guaraní, which shares official status with Spanish in Paraguay. Quechua is one of the 83 languages now designated as eligible for support, though no federally aided center yet offers it. Among other languages with official status are English, Dutch, and French, principally in the Caribbean region.

The United States and Latin America Today

It is clear that the United States is now entering a new and intensive era of mutual cooperation with the peoples and governments of Latin America. The President of the United States has recently drawn the general principles of a broad program he terms Alliance for Progress, and the Congress has just appropriated $600 million for special aid to Latin America. It seems inevitable that the technical and intellectual resources of the United States will become involved in sustained and varied efforts to assist Latin American peoples in social, economic, educational, and cultural development.

It is equally clear that in the field of Latin American studies the kind of advanced educational resources for which the NDEA language and area center authorization was created are seriously lacking. This is the finding of the Conference on Latin American Studies in the United States (sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the Newberry Library in 1958), the Report of the Committee on the University and World Affairs (sponsored by the Ford Foundation during 1959–60), and the Conference on the Status of Latin American Studies in the United States (sponsored by the Council on Higher Education in the American Republics and the University of California at Los Angeles in 1961). Other sources in and out of the Government support this testimony. Notwithstanding the widespread study of Spanish in U.S. schools and colleges, in the national interest there is urgent need for a limited number of fully developed graduate and post-doctoral centers of advanced instruction and research in the Spanish and Portuguese languages and in related Latin American studies. The exact role of Amerindian languages at one or more such centers requires further study.

Designation of Latin American Spanish

In view of the circumstances, Spanish is hereby designated as a language needed by Government, business, industry, and education and in which adequate advanced instruction is not presently available. This designation is directed specifically to the Spanish spoken in Latin America, and authorizes Federal aid, as conditions dictate, for the strengthening of a limited number of Latin American language and area centers both in advanced, intensive language instruction and in advanced area instruction. Further, a limited number of title VI stipends, under section 601(b), will be offered for specified advanced training in Latin American Spanish and related studies.

APPENDIX B

Statement of 53 University Foreign Language and Area Center Directors on Title VI of the National Defense Education Act

October 14, 1962

Title VI of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 was enacted in order to make good the nation's educational deficiency in modern foreign languages. Many languages of national importance were found not to be available in American education, others were in seriously short supply, others were ineffectively taught. America's commitments during and after World War II made these deficiencies glaringly apparent. As directors of the 53 language and area centers supported under title VI of the Act, we feel it proper to express our judgment on the working of the Act in its first four years, and on the need for its extension.

Title VI established three programs on which we can speak with authority. It has made possible the development of 53 centers in 33 universities, offering instruction in 66 critical languages and related area studies. Each center provides regular courses, frequently through existing university departments, along with specialized library and teaching materials, supplementary lectures, and frequently supporting research. The faculty assembled in these centers, comprising 212 language specialists and 246 specialists in the culture or institutions of the foreign areas, is a national resource of great value.

New language teaching methods and materials have been prepared, largely through university research supported by the National Defense Education Act. As a result, language learning is being accelerated, and adapted with precision to the students' needs.

About 1,600 graduate students have been supported in learning the critical languages and the related area subjects through National Defense Foreign Language Fellowships. They will, on completion of their training, help fill the nation's increasing needs for language-trained personnel at home or overseas.

Every dollar of federal money that supports the centers is matched by a dollar of university funds; in fact universities have spent considerably more than the matching requirement. In this way, Government funds have stimulated the universities to expand their own activities and at the same time have enabled the universities to accomplish a task wholly beyond their own resources. Thanks to the statesmanlike and educationally informed way in which title VI of the act has been administered by the Language Development Branch, government funds have made it possible for the universities to make a major contribution to the nation's language resources while preserving their own freedom of action and maintaining their own distinctive character.

These results demonstrate the wisdom of the decision four years ago to enact the National Defense Education Act, incorporating Title VI. The need to extend and enlarge the provisions of the legislation will in 1963 present the Nation and the Congress with a similar occasion for far sighted decision. Not only is there need for instruction in critical languages and related area courses to grow in proportion to university enrollments: many critical languages are not yet taught in this country; others are taught only at the introductory level. In spite of the training of new specialists under provisions of the Act we lack sufficient faculty with competence in all the areas of importance to the U.S. Upon us will now fall a large share of the duty of training the teachers who will introduce languages in much earlier stages of school and college education. The same considerations of national interest which led to the enactment of the National Defense Education Act in 1958 are more pressing now than then, and call for its extension and enlargement by the next Congress.

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Appendix C

A Survey of Intensive Programs in the Uncommon Languages
Summer 1962

By

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I. *Introduction*

This report on intensive courses in the uncommon languages conducted at 22 American colleges and universities during the summer of 1962 is based on a survey undertaken by Henry M. Hoenigswald of the University of Pennsylvania, Richard B. Noss of the Foreign Service Institute, and Ernest N. McCarus and Joseph K. Yamagiwa of the University of Michigan. By intensive courses are meant those which cover an academic year's work during a summer session. Institutions and language programs visited include:

*California at Berkeley (Russian)
*Chicago (*Bengali, Tamil*)
*Columbia (*Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese, Spanish, Hungarian*)
*Cornell (*Indonesian, Thai*)
Duke (Hindustani)
*Duquesne (*Swahili*)
*Fordham (Russian)
*Harvard (*Arabic, Persian, Turkish*)
*Hawaii (Chinese, Japanese, *Indonesian*, *Thai*, and Korean)
*Indiana (*Russian*)
*Kansas (*Japanese*)
*Michigan (*Chinese, Japanese, Russian*)
*Michigan State (*Hausa, Ibo, Swahili, Yoruba*)
Middlebury (Russian)
*Pennsylvania (*Hindi-Urdu*, Nepali)
*Pittsburgh (*Chinese*)
*Stanford (*Chinese, Japanese*)
Utah State (Russian, Spanish, Persian)
*Washington (Russian, Chinese)

Western Reserve (Russian)
*Wisconsin (*Hindi, Telugu, Kannada*)
*Yale (Chinese, Russian)

The starred institutions house NDEA Language and Area Centers. Summer language programs supported by the U.S. Office of Education under the terms of the National Defense Education Act are italicized.

The survey had for its basic purpose the identification of the best administrative and teaching practices observable at the several institutions. A listing of practices grounded in good theory and tested by experience will perhaps help to indicate the optimal conditions under which intensive language programs might be conducted. A listing of these practices will provide guidelines in developing the Office of Education's program of support for intensive language programs. Suppleness and variety are desiderata in any program; the several principles and procedures are best followed in various combinations at various times throughout a summer.

If, as no one can doubt, intensive programs are here to stay, the problems which they involve will need continual analyzing and researching, with teachers of language working in collaboration with teachers of area subjects and psychologists of language learning. Certain supervisory and pedagogical practices seem preferable over some others, but the determination whether one of several disputable procedures is to be preferred over the others is, we believe, researchable.

For the many courtesies extended to the survey team, the members wish to express their gratitude. In this day of mountainous paper work and visitors by the dozen, the infliction of each new questionnaire seems almost unconscionable. But in virtually every case the team members were met with unfailing courtesy and (we believe) with real candor. Except for necessary extrapolations, everything in this report represents observations made and opinions recorded during the course of the survey.

Rather impressive are the special local conditions under which the several programs operate. Some programs, like those in Russian at Indiana and Michigan, may have a total enrollment of 200 or more students. Many get along on enrollments that barely meet the minimums imposed by their university administrations. The total local climate (the practices followed in courses in the European languages, a feeling that nothing is being learned unless it has to do with the written language) may lead to emphasis of the written over the spoken language.

Great cities like New York and Cleveland send college students to many areas of the country, where, having taken courses in beginning Russian, Chinese, or Japanese, they return to take second-year work in the summer. The adjustments that become necessary plague the conscientious teacher and make for lesser efficiency than he would desire.

The situation at Hawaii is complicated by a student body which is in large part Asian-descended and comes to the university with a background of use of some one of the Chinese, Japanese, or Korean dialects. In Cleveland, the heavy Slavic element in the population helps to enlarge Western Reserve's classes in Russian. The history of a university's contacts with particular areas of the world may help to determine the languages which it teaches, as Persian at Utah State.

Institutions also differ in their intellectual flair. Research-oriented staffs tend to think of reading-grammar-translation as being the most effective methodology. They tend too to concern themselves with the preparation of teaching materials custom-tailored to the special needs of their students, who are inclined to be academically oriented. Most programs are intent on doing the best possible job with as many students as can be accommodated. One or two keep only their best students and apparently do not mind a high rate of attrition.

II. *Intensive versus semi-intensive and nonintensive courses*

1. The case for the intensive summer course

Intensive language courses in the summer represent the wave of the present and future:

a. They permit ready articulation with the work of the preceding and following years, particularly when the work is done at the same institution. Doing less than a year's work means that the student may have to mark time until the next appropriate course is offered. Doing more may lead to the same result; in fact, students who have studied a foreign language during the summer will presumably move ahead of those who haven't since they will approach the following autumn's work with the language fresher in their minds. Some amount of inequity needs to be resolved as the fall term opens, but in general the intensive summer language course that covers the work of an entire year is most easily fitted into a university's curriculum. At a time when more and more universities are contemplating year-round operation, the role which intensive courses in the several subject areas might play deserves special consideration.

b. Constant, continuous exposure to the target language reduces the chances of lapses and forgetting. For a given amount of classroom time, intensive courses probably accomplish more than nonintensive courses. At one of the universities visited, the tests given in the elementary course at the end of the first semester, 1961–62, was repeated at the end of 4 weeks in the summer. The students in the summer "won hands down." As far as the instructor could judge, the students in the two courses were equivalent in caliber, but those in the summer spoke the language they were learning with greater readiness and showed better control of grammar. In another course, all the grammar studied in a two-semester course was covered in 6 weeks. In an intensive course, properly taught, the student receives maximum exposure to the language he is studying plus the benefits of formal instruction. Intensive summer courses assure the student of a good first year in the target language.

c. Intensive courses make for quicker usefulness of a foreign language. Four years of college work can be accomplished in a summer followed by an academic year and a second summer, if a year's work can be accomplished in each of the two summers and 2 years' work done in the intervening academic year. This enables a student to use a foreign language not only in courses in literature but also in courses in the social and technical sciences. It is only fair to note, however, that materials in foreign languages may differ as to quality and that if too many foreign languages were represented in the reading materials for any course, special arrangements would have to be made to check on correctness of use and interpretation. Even when the aims are not academic, intensive courses will quickly prepare students for oversea travel, at least to the point of their being able to make their way around in a foreign environment. Intensive courses are the only answer to reaching a prescribed level of proficiency by a certain time, predicated, of course, on the student's willingness to work. They meet the special needs of the undergraduate in an accelerated program, the graduate student whose normal year is filled with the requirements of his field, and the school teacher or other full-time jobholder who can use only the summer months in order to extend his knowledge. Considering the fact that it took 1,600–2,000 hours of classroom work to produce a Japanese language officer during World War II, the offering of intensive courses enhances the chances of producing students who are truly skilled in the use of a foreign language.

d. The intensive course fills the vacuum now being created by a lessening in the total number of area courses brought about by increased support of summer research on the part of the social scientists, especially at those institutions which have been the recipients of the huge grants given by the Ford Foundation. Competition from area courses may come if more of these courses were offered in the summer semester of a trimester year or if larger numbers of students were to need particular area courses in order to graduate. But it seems more likely that an area specialist who has the opportunity to do research with support amounting to a summer's salary, plus, in many cases, funds for travel and subsistence, will prefer to do this research rather than to teach. Also, few students can take both a language course that is truly intensive and an area course and do the former justice.

e. In schools with small enrollments, the offering of an intensive first-year course in the summer permits the students to move into intermediate courses in the fall, along with the students who completed their first year's course in the preceding spring. The two groups together are sometimes needed in order to form a fiscally viable intermediate course.

f. Intensive courses assure attainment of the skills needed by elementary and high school teachers, as defined by the Modern Language Association of America. In many States, without some amount of foreign language in high school, the prospective teacher of foreign language in a primary or secondary school can hardly hope to meet the standards set by the MLA. To meet these standards, more than 4 years of college training, given at the usual rate, are needed. Since the decision to become a foreign language teacher usually comes during a collegian's sophomore year, an intensive course in the summer between the sophomore and junior years becomes almost mandatory. The earlier the intensive courses can be taken, the better. Intensive intermediate courses might thus be given in the summer to students who have just completed their freshman year and intensive first-year courses to students who have just graduated from high school.

Compared with the intensive language course, the summer semi-intensive course covering one semester's work can claim only one or two advantages:

a. The feeling persists in some quarters that exclusive absorption in a foreign language course may be somewhat less profitable than a less hurried approached which will permit greater time for absorption. Proponents of semi-intensive courses argue that semi-intensive courses permit slower, surer acquisition of a second language.

b. A series of semi-intensive courses would have the advantage of accommodating students who are out of phase with the intensive summer courses and would also be advantageous for those students who are making up failures of one semester only.

We need also to note that intensive courses—administratively speaking—are not easy to maintain. Provision of a strong language staff from one summer to the next becomes exceedingly complex when

a. the number of teachers is small

b. they go on leave for rest or research

c. the high-priced professor takes up a major share of the funds.

Intensive programs also are not to be recommended to the student who

a. is too easily diverted by nonacademic attractions

b. tries to combine his usual domestic life with a full schedule of classes—in particular at those schools in which the students of an intensive program are housed together

c. tries to join a full-time summer job with intensive language study.

The question, how large a percentage of students who take an intensive beginner's course go on to second-year work, is difficult to answer. In the case of the larger summer programs which draw their students from a number of schools, as few as 25 percent of a class may go on with its work at the institution where the summer's work is taken. The students who do not continue are not necessarily inept: they may have returned to their jobs after having spent a summer in language study, they may have been drafted into military service, or they may have decided that they should study another language. After the second year, the number of students who go on to advanced study seems regrettably low. But it seems probable that more students will continue with foreign language study if they can elect a series of intensive courses that will, more quickly than is possible with nonintensive courses, permit them to arrive at real competence.

2. Intensive courses in the academic year

The case for intensive courses in the summer which make a year's work the unit is easily made. It is not so easy to justify intensive courses (given at the rate of approximately 20 hours a week) during the regular academic year.

a. During the academic year the foreign language departments are inevitably affected by university-wide requirements which enforce upon the students a variety of non-language courses.

b. The penalty for dropping an intensive course may be unusually severe. Unless some kind of dispensation is arranged, to give credit in proportion to the amount of time a student has devoted to a language course, he may well lose an entire semester's credits. The "impossible" student should be quickly moved out of a program, preferably in its first week, so that other courses may be found for him. Thorough scrutiny of application forms, analysis of letters of recommendation, and the giving of aptitude and placement tests might solve the problem, along with alert observation by teachers. The slow but not impossible learner might be retained if the program were large enough to provide instruction at slow speed, but this is a luxury reserved only for the larger programs. The inept student should be sped on his way. Regrettably, he becomes a casualty of the intensive course.

c. Some feel that intensive courses are especially suited for elementary work in the spoken language and that a reduction of classroom hours might be acceptable for advanced work in the written language. However, the problem remains of maintaining whatever proficiency a student has attained in his spoken language work. Thus, to reach maximal effectiveness, a series of intensive or semi-intensive courses integrating work in the spoken and written languages might be offered, with the institution going all out on intensive courses in the summer and intensive or semi-intensive courses in the winter. The possibility arises of concentrating all elementary language teaching, both of the usual and unusual languages, in the summertime in order to take the load off of teaching them in the winter. This would plunge the students into second-year language work during their first year of college.

d. Special problems arise when the only teacher of a course in any neglected language is either hired away or goes on leave. Ready transfer of students to a second institution in which the same language is taught seems to be one answer.

3. The oral-aural approach versus reading-translation-grammar

The following observations are based both on class visits and on opinions expressed by staff members at most of the institutions visited.

The language classes with the largest sense of liveliness and activity are those in which only the target language is used and the major part of the hour is devoted to hammer-and-tongs pattern drill. Even when mastery of the written language is the goal, listening and speaking should precede reading and writing; the royal road to accomplishment leads through oral-aural drill. Recent research shows that at the end of two semesters students who began their study of the German language in this way were far superior in listening and speaking, were almost on the same level of reading and writing ability, and were superior in habituated direct association, that is, avoidance of mental translation. The students taught by traditional methods were superior in written translation. (See George A. C. Scherer and Michael Wertheimer, "The German Teaching Experiment at the University of Colorado," *The German Quarterly*, XXXV: 3, May 1962.) For languages like Chinese, Japanese, Thai, Hindi-Urdu, Arabic, and Persian, for which the system of writing is highly complicated, a reading-translation approach obliges each student to learn the phonological form of a word, its meaning, and its written symbolization all at once. Necessarily, this bogs down the learning process, whereas if the pronunciation and meaning were first learned and the written symbols later, the association of the three becomes relatively less difficult.

Reading-translation courses have a way of becoming tedious for the brighter students, since so much time is taken up in correcting student errors, often to the accompaniment of explanations on grammar by the instructor. Some teachers in reading courses spend altogether too much time in giving dictation. In one course observed during the summer, the grand total of seven sentences was written from dictation in the course of 25 minutes. Since the person doing the dictating was one of the students, the instructor not only had to correct the dictating student's mispronunciations, but the miswritings on the board. The errors, moreover, were compounded because the dittoed material on which the dictation was based was itself obscure or mistaken in a number of spots.

The oral-aural approach is not necessarily practiced at every institution which accepts it in theory. Nor is it practiced consistently by all of its instructors. It will certainly fail if the teachers are saddled with an old-line text intended for a class in which reading-translation-grammar is the strategy. These texts generally give a set of grammar rules, a vocabulary, idioms, and translation exercises from the target language to English, from English to the target language. The teacher amplifies in English on the grammar points that are already described in the book. The students do the required translations and the teacher's job becomes mainly one of correcting whatever errors are committed, with frequent reference to rules.

Exclusive use of the target language in the classroom may seem difficult to maintain. Some amount of discussion of grammar in English seems necessary for beginning students, especially if the rules are obscurely phrased, but grammar itself becomes more easy when inductive procedures are employed after a number of examples have been learned. Also, grammar lectures in English are easily concentrated during particular hours in a week and can be made the occasion for considerable amounts of joint mimicking.

Some teachers argue that it is more efficient to give the English equivalent of a term in the foreign language than to indicate its meaning in a series of paraphrases. This must be done without encouraging the students to believe that there is a one-to-one correspondence between languages. Sometimes it is necessary to invent equivalents for English terms that don't really have a counterpart in the language being learned.

To make for steady use of the target language, the teacher or drillmaster resists every temptation to speak in English:

a. His classroom directions, which must be used every day, are phrased in the language he is teaching. In language courses, the one real situation is in fact the classroom, and he makes it as much as possible a classroom.
b. By use of pictures and maps, gestures and actions, he conveys meanings in the classrooms as in everyday life.
c. By using apt paraphrases or by using known synonyms and antonyms, he again gets across the desired meaning.
d. As the students gain in spoken proficiency, the preparation of oral reports forces them to speak in the foreign language they are learning. So too a device used in at least two programs: After several repetitions of a story, during which the new words are translated orally, the students are asked to translate the story quickly, sentence by sentence, then to answer questions on it, and finally to retell it themselves. The foreign language thus becomes a real medium of communication, despite some use of English.

The oral-aural approach, which puts a premium on knowledge that is usable and useful, generally instills a sense of increasing proficiency and confidence in the beginning student. Particularly in those languages which are encumbered with difficult writing systems, it probably reduces attrition in enrollment.

Especially at intermediate and advanced levels, exclusive use of a foreign language is demanded and cultivated not only in the classroom but in the dormitory. Song practices, lectures, dances, picnics, and concerts are all held in the foreign language that is being studied. A pledge to speak only the foreign language can be taken, and students, learning its value, will generally conform.

In classroom drill on the spoken language, the following principles operate:

a. Basically, only the target language is used and at normal speed, with only an occasional grammatical term given in English.
b. The use of English is restricted to explanations of grammar, which are kept strictly separate from the drill periods in which only the foreign language is used. The separation of a small amount of lecturing time from large amounts of drill work is carefully observed. Where available, a good reference grammar which the students can consult in their study hours serves as the basis for any grammatical discussion.
c. Drilling is based on sentence patterns, with constant repetition, correction of student mispronunciations, and substitution of lexical items until native norms are achieved.
d. Choral repetition is used in connection with explanations of grammar and in alternation with individual repetition.
e. Irregular rotation of recitation, with each student given the opportunity to recite many times during each period.
f. Deemphasis of translation.
g. The infusion of variety in the teaching procedures, changing them frequently during any hour of instruction.
h. Heavy participation by the students as opposed to the holding of monologues by the teacher.

To be avoided are:

a. Extra-heavy assignments.
b. Covering two sets of materials, one for the spoken language and one for the written, when the two can be integrated.

The intensive summer course which in number of hours most closely compares with nonintensive academic year courses runs for 8 weeks at the rate of 20 hours a week. Meeting a total of 160 hours, such a course equates fairly well with academic year courses which run for 30 weeks at the rate of 4 or 5 hours a week. In actuality, both the intensive courses offered in the summer and the nonintensive courses given during the academic year vary considerably in number of hours per week and day. Increasing the hours per day in the summer from 4 to 5 probably does not add to the effectiveness of an intensive program since wear and tear sets in and less time becomes available for study. It thus appears that the kind of schedule that comes closest to being ideal runs for 8 weeks at the rate of 5 days per week and 4 hours per day, of which 3 are classroom hours and 1 is devoted to work in the laboratory. The hours, moreover, are separated one from another as much as possible and a variety of procedures is followed in the classroom.

Some believe that a quick course in linguistics might be combined with a language course, with the hours spent in language work gradually increased as those in linguistics diminish. Thus, an hour per day of language work during the first 2 weeks, joined with 2 hours in general linguistics, might be followed by 2 hours per day in the third and fourth weeks, joined with a single hour in linguistics, and this by 3 hours of language in the fifth week, with linguistics dropped from the program. This "crescendo" approach merits further experimentation.

Some programs run for 10 or more weeks, but when this is the case, and in particular when the courses run longer than the regular summer session, both the teaching staffs and students seem to tire. In a few programs running 10 weeks or more the possibility arises of an intensive program in the summer accomplishing more than a year's work. If the continuation course in the fall is able to pick up where the summer course ends, no difficulty ensues.

It is possible to operate a 6-week program meeting 5 hours a day, but this is undoubtedly too taxing for both teachers and students.

The doctrine that the teacher-student ratio in the classroom should run approximately 1:8 is generally accepted, the chief exception in favor of a larger number of students coming where lectures in grammar are being held.

For the student who is unable to take any kind of course in the summer, intensive or nonintensive, one instructor has prepared some "carryover" drills consisting of sentences and conversations in script and transcription, recapitulating materials studied during the previous semester and recorded on tapes which the students may borrow. Some kind of reward awaits this instructor in heaven.

4. Some problems pertaining to language teaching

Much remains to be learned in the line of teaching methodology:

a. We need to know more about what can be achieved in a given number of contact hours spread over different periods of time.
b. We need to know more about the measurement of achievement in language.
c. The proportion of time to be devoted to oral drill, laboratory work, and reading needs to be studied.
d. The problem, how large a part of drill-work may be programed, and whether it is possible to devise a series of exercises in which students learn to correct their own mispronunciations, needs examination. There appeared to be no concern (not even experimental or negative) with techniques suggested by machine programing.
e. We do not know the precise moment in a course, intensive, semi-intensive, or ordinary, at which the symbols in a non-alphabetic system of writing should be introduced, or the rate at which they can be acquired.
f. We do not know the techniques whereby entire sequences of characters may be read at a glance as opposed to piecemeal identification of each succeeding symbol which is too often the rule.
g. We need to know whether we should introduce each day's teaching materials orally and withhold the written texts and grammatical comments from our students until the drillwork has been completed. We need to know whether this procedure is actually more effective than the usual introduction of each day's lesson with grammar comments and printed material.

h. We need to know when a student will most benefit from total immersion in the culture whose language he is studying. When should he go to Russia, India, or the Congo? Presumably, he needs first to establish an aptitude for the language he is studying and ability to profit in terms of his specialty.

III. *Objectives*

Complete fluency within the range of materials studied in class, meaning the ability to carry on everyday conversation effectively, is the chief objective which intensive elementary courses in spoken language strive for. Specifically, the order of aims agrees with the order in which work in the desired competences is introduced:

a. hearing,
b. speaking,
c. reading, and
d. writing.

Within any summer session, the beginning student should become able to manage the greetings required in everyday life, buy things, go from one place to another, or move into a hotel. For the languages that are written in the letters of the alphabet, he should be able to read the simplest texts, certainly with the aid of a dictionary. The further goals of becoming so sensitive to each new foreign expression that he would be able to request its meaning and stand a chance of comprehending what is answered, of being able to converse confidently in his specialty, or of reading professional materials in his field become the objectives of intermediate and advanced training.

Implicit among the objectives of a spoken language course is the development of conversational fluency within the limits of the grammar forms and vocabulary taught in the course. Ideally, the course seeks to develop:

a. accuracy in pronunciation, including approximation to native norms of intonation (control of phrase rhythm and juncture phenomena), accent (both tone and stress), the pronunciation of the phonemes in the proper allophones, especially if these are not found in English, vowel length, the doubling of consonants, etc.
b. accuracy and variety in use of grammar forms
c. deft use of words and phrases in accordance with idiom
d. fluency, as shown by quickness in comprehension and readiness to sustain conversation to the fullest limits required in any language situation
e. understanding of stylistic differences.

The specific objectives for written language work include:

a. accuracy in use of vocabulary, phrases, and grammatical forms, both in composition and in translation
b. accuracy in spelling and passable if not elegant handwriting
c. correct pronunciation of words and phrases and general fluency in reading materials either in romanization or in native script
d. the ability to analyze a text or a sentence grammatically
e. the proper interpretation of differences in style, in both reading and composition.

Some instructors believe that a premium should be placed on successful communication as opposed to correctness in every detail. Sometimes it seems best to let the students "have their say" instead of correcting them whenever they make an error. Moreover, there is a notable difference in a beginning student's pronunciation when he is repeating a phrase or sentence that he has already learned and when he is "on his own." Probably in a beginning course the greatest emphasis should be given to rote memorizing and repetition, with "free conversation" kept within the limits of utterances and dialogues already learned. Freer conversation and a daring use of phrases and sentences in fresh combinations come when a stock of phrases has been learned. The emphases shift as a course progresses, but it seems clear that at any point in a program it is uncertainty in teaching aims that hurts it.

We need finally to note that in beginning courses most institutions concentrate on skills that are basically linguistic. As the students sharpen their competences, the linguistic aims will remain but more attention will be given to content, with some institutions tending to emphasize materials in the humanities and others in the social sciences.

IV. *The teaching staff*

Generally speaking, intensive courses in foreign languages involve a team effort. The best results are obtained when the whole program is carefully controlled. By careful control is not meant dictation from some topside supervisor, but cooperative effort in which a supervisor, working with his instructors and drillmasters, maintains step by step mastery over all of the material to be taught and keeps a constant check on student accomplishment. Especially effective are such devices as the following:

a. staff meetings

b. classroom visits by the supervisor (sometimes accompanied by guests).

The use of lesson plans and distribution of memoranda are less frequently observed procedures.

Where joint participation in a single course by two or more instructors or drillmasters is possible, the students gain the advantage of hearing more than one dialect or idiolect and discover the range of variability permitted among speakers of the "standard" or "common" language. However, the possibility of hearing and mimicking more than a single voice is generally restricted to the larger programs.

Linguists and drillmasters, working as a team, sometimes try to work out in class a point of grammar on which the linguist is not sure. This, to say the least, is disconcerting to the student, who benefits from the discussion only to the extent that he is exposed to authentic pronunciation and learns something about dealing with members of a foreign culture.

1. The language supervisor

Efficient management of an intensive language program seems to require a supervisor who

a. maintains affable but tight and detailed control over each phase of his program, insisting on the use of clearly defined materials for each day's work and leaving nothing to chance or improvisation

b. is well grounded in linguistics and in knowledge of the language over whose teaching he has been placed in charge

c. knows what the textbooks in his language are and is ingenious in the preparation of lesson plans, supplementary materials, and examinations over whose production and execution he wins full cooperation from his instructors and drillmasters (the questions used in question-and-answer drills are sometimes written out in characters for drillmasters in languages like Chinese and Japanese who find the characters more easy to read than any romanized script)

d. directs staff meetings and provides constructive advice on the conduct of classes (which he visits from time to time on the basis of an accepted "open-door" policy)

e. has the confidence of his administration while at the same time remains persuasive in his efforts to secure the best possible salary scales and working conditions for his staff. Experience and effectiveness should have their rewards—as must happen in any ideal world. Where consultation with students, assignments in the language laboratory, and preparation of lesson materials are required of the junior linguists, instructors, and drillmasters in his program, he should be willing to arrange a reduction in the total number of teaching hours

f. is flexible enough to encourage occasional informal activities which, however, provide additional practice in language

g. more than anyone else in his program, shows a flair for research both in the language whose teaching he is directing and in teaching methodology

h. insures effective teaching by new staff members by holding presession training periods

i. maintains good rapport with his counterparts at other institutions

j. prepares such materials as the following and so imparts a sense of order to any program:
   (1) bulletins and catalogues describing the entire program
   (2) rosters of staff (with curriculum vitae, office rooms)
   (3) listings of texts and tapes
   (4) weekly schedules showing classrooms, hours, assignments, and teachers
   (5) application forms for admission
   (6) promotional material (letters, flyers) sent to other colleges and to secondary schools
   (7) announcements of lectures, exhibits, and other special events
   (8) maps of one's campus.

The development of a professional and academic sense within his staff remains one of his major concerns. Careful guidance of the instructors and drillmasters who serve with him may sometimes smack of a "big brother" hovering over some little ones. Classroom visits, for instance, may disturb a drillmaster who is actually more effective if less thoroughly supervised. On the other hand, it is the supervisor who sees to it that in the teaching of an exotic language, standards of preparation and accomplishment are as uniform and as exacting as in other fields.

In any conflict with students, the teachers need, of course, the support of their supervisors. Since the departments offering courses on the critical languages are generally small, the teachers undertake a great deal, especially by way of giving extra reading and spoken language sessions on an ad hoc basis. The care and nurture of the teachers should be a constant concern of the supervisor, the more so in those cases in which Russian, and even Japanese, might be housed in a Department of Romance Languages and Literatures.

Considering how easy it is to have a staff fall at odds with each other, unusual deftness is required of a language supervisor. More than anyone else, it is the language supervisor who by dint of hard work, high standards, self-assuredness, and flexibility gives tone to his program. Uninterrupted experience, constant activity, and concentration of talent both scholarly and pedagogic are some of the distinguishing features of his program. Possibly, somewhere we may one day find this paragon of virtue, of professional and personal tidiness, who is knowledgeable, pleasant, accessible, and effective.

2. The junior linguist and instructor

Where a junior linguist and instructor directs the classroom activities of a team of drillmasters, he too should possess most of the qualities of a supervisor, although of course he would not be concerned with budgetary matters. The interposition of junior linguists and instructors between the supervisor and drillmasters sometimes has the advantage, where native speakers of certain languages are concerned, of giving the supervisor the respect that comes from social distance. This, however, touches on a delicate area, since in the prosecution of language programs in a democratic society, expectations are raised to conduct them in a democratic way.

A junior linguist or instructor probably needs to spend a good deal of time in producing vocabulary sheets, grammar notes, charts of the writing system, and phonetic diagrams. He also needs to shoulder a large part of the burden of preparing supplementary lesson materials and examinations, and spends much time in consultation, both with his assistants and with his students. Devotion, hard work, and resourcefulness, desiderata in any endeavor, increase his usefulness to any program. He may even be a graduate student, especially if his knowledge of a foreign language's grammar is sound and he is able to work with the drillmasters.

3. The native-speaker drillmaster

The position of the native speaker who acts as drillmaster should receive maximal consideration from both supervisors and administration. Some of their problems are the same surrounding the instructor who has not yet won his Ph. D. degree and thus cannot be placed on the regular promotional ladder. But the drillmaster, like the Ph. D. candidate who serves as a teaching fellow in freshman composition or section leader in mathematics, actually performs the bulk of the job of teaching and his rewards in salary if not in title should be commensurate with the real load that he is carrying. The development of something like a professional academic attitude to his work depends to a large extent on the supervisors, junior linguists, and instructors with whom he works. On his own part he is most effective if:

a. he possesses full control of the language that he is teaching, in a dialect that is either the "standard" or "common" one
b. he is willing at each point in the teaching program to carry all or most of the burden of pattern practice, vigorously correcting each student mispronunciation and, without signs of boredom, calling for constant repetitions until the patterns are firmly fixed. He also

develops a sense of when to stop a reciting student. Hoping for fluency, he may permit a student to have his say. But he also keeps mental (if not written) notes on the student's inaccuracies and turns to them when the recitation is over. He realizes that he is not making speeches.

c. he serves as his program's best authority on the phonology, grammar, and lexicon of his language insofar as control of these elements of language is built into his system; the materials used in the classroom and the responses made by the students must gain his approval, that is, agree with his sense of what is idiomatically correct
d. he is able to assist in the preparation of drill materials
e. he helps in making tapes
f. he is ready to help his students in individual drill
k. he restricts his use of his language to the patterns and vocabulary that his students have already learned, and does not introduce grammatical forms and lexical items that are new to the student
l. he willingly cooperates with the supervisor and instructors in following whatever suggestions that may arise in staff meetings and consultations, and takes in stride any classroom visitations by the supervisor and instructors
m. he resists the temptation to expostulate on the grammar of his language, and turns each student's questions on grammar to the supervisor or instructor in charge
n. he resists the temptation to modify or distort his own speech "to make it easier" for his students
o. he exhibits real concern with the educational process and demands good performance, consistently correcting all mispronunciations
p. he takes full advantage of every physical asset in the classroom—like breaking the neat alignment of seats and arranging his students in a semicircle around him
q. he is vigorous and informal in his mannerisms
r. he willingly participates as a resource person in area courses, as required or when feasible
s. he does not participate in private dialogues with extra-articulate students

Since the drillmasters necessarily meet their students in various social contexts outside the classroom and are almost inevitably looked upon as representatives of their cultures, it seems useful to list some other desiderata. The drillmasters should be:

a. emotionally stable
b. neither too aggressive concerning the values they find in their cultures nor too defensive concerning the demerits in them
c. not too Americanized
d. willing to take direction as required, even though this may result in a certain amount of culture shock
e. willing, where required, to live with their students, maintaining such relationships that the entire teaching program is improved.

Most often, an intensive program has for its teaching staff a supervisor and one or more drillmasters. Some intensive courses are taught by a single instructor, who thus becomes supervisor and drillmaster alone. The joint presence of a linguist and drillmaster (or drillmasters) in a classroom is a luxury that few programs can afford. It also requires considerable psychological understanding on the part of linguist, drillmaster, and student. In at least one case, the linguists in charge of summer courses were outranked by their drillmasters apparently without damage to the program.

The position of the native speaking drillmaster becomes all the more important because, ironically, those holders of National Defense Foreign Language Fellowships who are being trained for language teaching are unable, according to the terms of their grants, to accept teaching assignments with pay. To provide teaching experience, courses labeled as "practice" need to be developed. Otherwise the students remain ill-prepared to take the positions for which they are presumably being trained.

Institutions differ in the academic position and in the role of the instructors. Some may work with "informants" while others may typically employ more or less academically active drillmasters. Another difference lies in the extent to which special faculty (sometimes a little unfamiliar with local conditions) is hired for the summer. A third difference has to do with rotation of instructors; even where enough of them are available, this rotation is all too seldom practiced.

The foregoing discussion assumes that joint teaching by a linguist and drillmaster is uneconomic if a drillmaster can be trained to act as teacher. Actually, not enough linguists are available even if joint teaching of a class by a linguist and drillmaster were budgetarily feasible. But in each case, whether it be supervisor, linguist, instructor, or drillmaster, sensitiveness to the students' attitudes and needs ranks high in administering an intensive program. The students deserve the best in both staff and program.

V. *The students*

Morale among students in intensive courses is generally good. Most are headed for careers as teachers, government workers (in the State and Defense Departments), businessmen, librarians, or missionaries. Others seek to come closer to a sense of world politics, as in taking Russian. The children and grandchildren of immigrants sometimes study a foreign language in order to be able to talk to their elders. Some are merely fulfilling a foreign language requirement. Some are taking the language "for fun." And in a few cases, a faculty member from another institution is studying a neglected language because his administration hopes to offer it. Thus in the majority of cases some kind of aim or incentive is there. The motivation is good, and a large percentage of the students are really committed to intensive study, making work in the classroom particularly rewarding and even exciting for the teacher.

Morale is greatly enhanced in those programs where there is a clear statement of goals and where progress is measured so that the student knows at any given point in the program where he stands.

Morale is also enhanced where fellowships and scholarships are offered. A fairly large group of graduate students in the summer intensive courses, possibly as many as 175, hold National Defense Foreign Language Fellowships, and many are recipients of grants at the universities where they study. The undergraduate student, unfortunately, remains the forgotten man. Since he must often use his summers in earning funds for his studies in the academic year, a small grant is of very little use to him. And yet it is in the undergraduate student training for graduate study in whom the aims of NDEA and the needs of the professions and vocations will really be met. Too large a percentage of the students in the intensive language programs are graduate students; regrettably, some of the programs cater exclusively to graduates.

VI. *Texts*

The oral approach implies that it is the spoken language that is being taught first. The better texts show two or more persons talking to each other, with supplementary exercises illustrating particular patterns of grammar. The procedure is thus different from that followed in the usual grammar-translation text which illustrates points of grammar with series of disconnected sentences but commonly gives no dialogues and no conversations.

Virtually no one grants that existing texts are entirely satisfactory. Among the supplementary materials produced for use in intensive courses are:

a. Introductions to pronunciation, phonetic charts, and drills developing facility in pronunciation
b. Sets of sentences showing breath pauses and other intonational features
c. Sets of sentences supplementing the texts with respect to grammar (showing, for instance, the kinds of agreement and concord found among the several elements of a sentence) or to vocabulary (using a basic word-count)
d. Counting exercises
e. Listings of grammar terms, with translations
f. Morphologic charts
g. Listings of specialized vocabulary and dialect variants where appropriate, as in Hindi-Urdu
h. Lists of terms applicable to the staff and several elements of a language program which have to be concocted because the equivalents are not to be found in the native educational system
i. Charts of the writing system for the non-alphabetical languages
j. Scripts of conversations, stories, songs, speeches, lectures, including slide lectures, and questions based on the lectures; also, scripts of radio and TV broadcasts and movie scripts
k. Scripts of translation exercises, English into the foreign language, foreign language into English
l. Maps, lists of place-names appearing on the maps
m. Descriptions in English of the geography and history of the country or area in which the foreign language is spoken
n. Bibliographies of writings in English of the country or area in which the foreign language is spoken

In order to promote conversation, many programs provide the following audio-visual aids:

a. pictures
b. maps
c. models of clocks.

The pictures may illustrate both scenes and actions.

VII. *Examinations*

Considerable ingenuity goes into the writing of examinations. And yet it is only in a few programs that real variety is found in the types of examination given.

Virtually no one uses a language aptitude test or the graduate record examination in determining a student's capacity to learn a language. And yet it seems clear that students attracted to language courses vary greatly in this capacity. Placement tests, some of which may seem perfunctory but are still effective, are usually given to transfer students. A close relationship probably exists between articulateness in one's mother tongue (English) and control of a foreign language; it is sometimes sheer physiology which prevents a student from gaining competence in a second language. But foreign language teachers are often cowards when it comes to discouraging an obviously inept student even though most of then can probably tell within a week's time what the ultimate capacities of a student would be.

Examinations serve many purposes. They tell a student where he stands, act as a prod, are useful for diagnosis, and oblige the student to bring together items that he has already learned into close relationship with each other Studying for an examination permits a student to summate and cement what he has already learned. In passing an examination with creditable grades, he discovers a feeling of achievement.

The Chinese tests developed under the direction of Professor John Carroll and the Russian tests now being developed under the auspices of the MLA open up the prospect of nationwide testing. Various voices rise in criticism of nationwide tests, but the tests can themselves be bettered and they suggest various means of improving particular courses.

In addition to placement examinations, most supervisors resort during the first week to some combination of the following procedures to place their students in the right courses:

a. Interviews with the students
b. Reviews of work previously done
c. Observation in class.

1. Tests for comprehension

The easiest types of examination are those testing for comprehension, either of something said or of something written:

a. translation, target language into English
b. marking one of two or more "multiple choices"
c. marking "true" or "false" one of a number of statements, orally delivered
d. answers in English to questions in the target language
e. answers in the target language to questions in the target language, sometimes on the basis of a lecture with the answers delivered orally or in writing
f. corrections of sentences that contain errors as to content
g. changes from declarative to interrogative sentences, and vice versa, where applicable

2. Tests for pronunciation:

a. analysis of student recordings, with the errors preferably noted on sheets in which major types of error are already shown and spaces left open to write down the particular words or forms in which the errors are detected

3. Tests for knowledge of grammar:
    - a. fill-ins of inflectional forms
    - b. conjugations, paradigms, parsing of forms
    - c. changing one form into another
    - d. corrections of sentences that contain errors in their forms
    - e. recorded speeches that are analyzed for the forms that are used
4. Tests for knowledge of sentence structure:
    - a. arrangement of vocabulary items in a designated order
5. Tests for knowledge of vocabulary:
    - a. fill-ins of blank spaces in sentences, in the right forms, sometimes with the English supplied where the blank spaces occur
6. Tests for productive capacity in the written language:
    - a. written compositions
    - b. equivalents in the foreign language of sentences in English
    - c. production of questions based on given blocks of material, addressed to the other students for answers
    - d. sight reading followed by paraphrases or by translations
7. Tests of knowledge of nonalphabetical writing systems (the systems in which languages like Thai, Hindi, Urdu, Chinese, and Japanese are written):
    - a. transcription into characters of sentences that are orally delivered
    - b. transcription of romanized sentences into the characters in which the foreign language is written, or vice versa
    - c. in Japanese, transcription of the Chinese characters into syllabic *kana*
8. Tests for productive capacity in the spoken language:
    - a. translation, English into target language
    - b. eliciting answers in the foreign language to questions in the foreign language, especially useful in those cases in which the answers require something more than the mere parroting of most of a teacher's questions
    - c. stating a situation and having the students converse with each other in a manner appropriate to the situation
    - d. requiring the students to serve as interpreters between speakers of English and speakers of the foreign language.

Each of these examinations may be recorded. However, tests administered in the classroom are generally better than those given on tape, since tests rendered by a teacher are probably less disturbing to the students. Also, less staff time is needed to grade the students on the spot than to play back and grade the taped answers of the whole class.

VIII. *The language laboratory*

Distressed by mechanical failures or by overcrowding in the language laboratory, some programs substitute an extra drill hour with a drillmaster in lieu of work in the laboratory. Ideally, there should be no breakage and malfunction in the equipment; highly desirable is the presence of a technician able to make almost every kind of repair. Some laboratories rely on insurance policies that permit swift attention to every bit of damage.

Typically, language laboratory hours are devoted to drill on materials already covered in class. Where most effective, they involve:

- a. the preparation of lesson plans

b. use of paused and double-tracked tape, permitting plenty of opportunity for mimicking and recording

c. use of exercises in which the student is asked to modify some part of a construction and then hears the master voice giving a model performance

d. constant monitoring either from a central keyboard or by instructors who roam from berth to berth, or both; the recording of student pronunciations is accompanied by diagnosis of errors and correction. The presence of a technician is of course not the same as supervision.

Each exercise with taped materials should involve some kind of response. The laboratory periods are thus regarded as instructional hours forming a vital part of the total program and not, as is too often the case, opportunities to listen to a foreign language on an optional basis.

In many institutions, attendance at a language laboratory is duly recorded on a time clock, and reports of attendance regularly submitted to the instructors. This practice suggests that mere attendance and repetition adds to language competence. But if the laboratory hours were actually treated as instructional hours, with a monitoring instructor in charge, the time card and its implications can be eliminated at once.

The language laboratory has at least two other uses:

a. It can be used as a recording studio for students at the beginning, middle, and end of each course, to prepare tapes that will show the amount of progress they have made.

b. It may also serve a real function as a listening post if a tape library of speeches, plays, recitations of poetry, and songs were built up and the students provided with schedules to show at what points in their training these tapes would become, say, 80 percent understandable.

It is possible that language programs throughout the country have not made sufficient use of the language laboratory in the sense that its use is generally limited to only 30 minutes or an hour per day. In one institution, 2 hours of work in the language laboratory are contemplated for next year: 1 hour of drill in the language that is being taught and one in general phonetics. For suggestions concerning the use of a language laboratory, language supervisors might well consult Edward M. Stack, *The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching*, New York, Oxford University Press, 1960.

When model tapes are recorded without the customary pauses between utterances, the monitor or technician has to switch the tape on and off for mimicking by the students. Or a student working alone may be provided with two machines: a tape player and a tape recorder. These machines may be used separately, or both together.

a. The model tapes are placed on the tape player. When the end of a sentence or phrase is reached, the student stops the player and starts the recorder. He then records his repetition. This procedure allows him to go slowly with new material, taking all the time in the world if he so desires, and, as he gains control of the material, taking progressively shorter pauses. Live broadcasts and commercial recordings may be used in the same way. Also, half as much tape is needed for recording the masters.

b. The model tapes may contain a series of questions. Played through a ceiling speaker, the first question is given once; a 3 or 4 second pause follows during which the student prepares his answer; the loud speaker announces, "Record!"; the student sets his recorder in motion, records his answer, stops the tape, and waits for the next question. Once the quiz is ended, he is told to rewind to the beginning, in preparation for hearing the correct answers. He hears the correct answer to the first question, plays his own answer, stops the tape, and waits for the next answer. He thus hears the correct answer even while the quiz is still fresh in his mind. And since only the answers are recorded, correction, by himself or by the monitor, at least of the grammar, becomes relatively rapid and simple.

In teaching the discrimination of different foreign sounds, one method favored at one school was found wanting at another. The procedure involves the use of tape-recorded drills. The student listens to a series of short words or syllables, including nonsense syllables, at 3-second intervals and marks an answer sheet according to whether the utterance contains or does not contain the sound being drilled. At one of the schools, the desired discriminations were achieved. At another, 2 weeks of laboratory time were devoted to this work, but the teacher concluded that it was worthless, at least in the context of his class, and that the class was only baffled and frustrated by these exercises. The only improvement in sound discrimination, he felt, appeared to have come from class drills with the drillmaster, using mainly words from the lessons rather than the taped drills. It appears that research is needed in this area, which incidentally bears on the efficiency of machine programming.

Generally speaking, it seems fruitless to record grammatical rules in English, but this is sometimes observed!

The language laboratory should permit each student to proceed at his own pace. This is most easily accomplished when a dial system is used and the students are permitted to dial in to whatever lesson they wish to hear.

IX. *Quasi-curricular activities*

The scheduling of quasi-curricular activities is probably best managed in intermediate and advanced courses. Performances of short skits and plays and presentation of speeches both memorized and impromptu are less easily required of beginning students, whose knowledge of the foreign language would still be elementary. But some part of the language classes can profitably be devoted to the acting out of dialogues based on the greetings and patterns that have already been learned.

At the intermediate and advanced levels, various programs schedule:

a. slide lectures for which the script may be taped and the students provided with both scripts and questions
b. skits and playlets whose scripts are composed by the students
c. speech and story-telling contests
d. song hours.

Especially at advanced levels and at places like New York and Hawaii where radio broadcasts and TV programs in the foreign language can be enjoyed, or where movies in the foreign language can be seen, the language programs possess a special advantage. But there is virtually no program that makes use of radio, TV, and movie scripts as part of the teaching material, and therefore no program in which these scripts are studied prior to listening to a particular taped radio broadcast or viewing a particular video-taped TV play or movie. Various listings give the sources from which movies in foreign languages can be secured. Luncheon tables and coffee hours are easily scheduled. But language houses with comfortable sleeping quarters, living room, "listening room," and library, and tours on chartered planes to areas where the foreign language is spoken are reserved for the the more fortunate. Where found, as in the tour groups of the Russian programs at Indiana and Michigan, they are not quasi-curricular arrangements but integral parts of a teaching program. Less useful as vehicles for the study of a foreign language are guest lecturers in English and cultural heritage groups associated with foreign areas; these, however, enlarge upon the cultural content of foreign language study. This is also true of associations with professors, researchers, and students from foreign areas: too often the talk here is in English, partly because this is the language which the visitors wish to practice and partly because for beginning students a prolonged conversation in the language they are studying becomes a wearing experience. Nevertheless, these contacts do reinforce the students' growing knowledge of a foreign area and anticipate the time when they are able to use the language they are studying in these contacts.

X. *Reading courses*

So far this report has had to do mainly with intensive courses in the spoken language, chiefly because intensive courses in the written language tend to be advanced courses and are rarely offered. In the best of the reading courses, the passages that the students have read are treated as material on which questions might be asked in the foreign language and conversations held. The degree of comprehension achieved is gauged by ability to paraphrase the material.

In those languages in which a nonalphabetic script is used, the students are provided with vocabulary lists giving the pronunciations and meanings of words that are new in the text, along with notes on points of grammar. The provision of these lists is not to be viewed as spoon-feeding, but as a device to insure multiple exposure to the same vocabulary and grammar items. A student of a European language probably doubles the amount of time he takes in reading a page of print when he looks up the meanings of three words in a dictionary. Students of Chinese or Japanese or even of Arabic and Russian lose even more time when they hunt particular words, characters, and compounds in a dictionary. But even for these students, an effort at memorizing is desirable: the explanation of a word, character, or compound, once made, need not be repeated when the same word, character, or compound appears once more. The most easily read materials are those that are descriptive. Hence, in programming a reading course, materials in such fields as geography and sociology might be first assigned, before literary and historical texts, containing a larger percentage of narrative forms ("when" clauses, "if" clauses), are read. But within each field of knowledge, a grading of materials in terms of linguistic difficulty is possible. Each field, as practiced in a foreign country, may not produce scholarly materials of top importance, but evaluation of their worth comes in part from reading them and the primary documents of each field remain crucial to the investigator.

Since more homework is required in a course on the written language, it is almost mandatory for it to schedule fewer hours. But intensive courses in the written language, calling for 10 hours of classroom work a week, are not unknown, and even in written work more is accomplished in these courses simply because the students are exposed to more work. Since "writing maketh the exact man," compositions play an important role in courses in the written language. At two or three institutions, the compositions written by the students are gathered in booklet form.

Courses in the written language must make sure that the students receive ample guidance in reading and identifying personal and place names through using dictionaries both general and specialized.

Generally, teachers of the written language surrender too easily to the temptation to resort to grammar-translation as their method. For languages written in a nonalphabetical script, even a beginner's knowledge of the system of writing adds to a student's self-esteem. But early study of a foreign script may become an impediment to competence in speech. Intensive courses meeting 4 hours a day, however, may soon introduce 1 hour a day of work on the written language since in the remaining 3 hours it is possible to assure continued and even rapid progress in speech. Advanced courses meeting 3 or 4 hours a week become worthwhile only when they do something more than keep up the competences already acquired.

XI. *Language-area liaison*

No language course can hope to present the facts and principles of a social or technical science in any systematic way. However, a language course may serve to back up and to augment the knowledge given in these nonlanguage courses. Though it would take a highly sensitive American student to draw from the materials of a beginning language course and from his drillmasters even the most common traits discoverable in a foreign culture, the language course does serve as a kind of introduction to the culture it represents. Teachers may in fact disagree over the interpretation of the selections in a particular textbook. Even isolated phrases, sentences, and paragraphs may be "condemned." Where native speaking drillmasters disagree in their interpretations, say, of Russian character structure, heated discussions may follow. Nevertheless, accretions in one's knowledge of a foreign culture, received from whatever source, should be accepted as a good thing.

Scientists, both social and technical, thus accept the need of strong programs in language in order to bolster the technical competences of their students. In fact, the relationship between language and area programs is becoming more and more one of corporate viability and some of the social scientists are numbered among the strongest advocates of intensive summer language study. More and more students come to language programs from such fields as history, geography, political science, anthropology, economics, art, and sociology, and languages like Russian now attract students from virtually every field who vaguely feel that learning a foreign language is a way of getting closer to the international situation. To meet the requirements of all these students, special means might be taken:

a. Where the texts now in use are hopelessly inadequate as far as coverage of the culture of an area is concerned, new texts should be written. Some of the texts that are still being used date back to World War II and contain somewhat anachronistic references to the military (trips to the hospital to visit the wounded!) and civil administration.
b. Supplementary materials appropriate to each subject area might be introduced at particular points in the language course, using the grammar forms that have already been learned and consisting of the vocabulary of each field covered.
c. Specialized vocabulary lists might be issued.
d. Lists of specialized dictionaries might be compiled.
e. Films might be prepared to show the relationships that exist between language and culture and the relationships between language, gesture, and action.

The infusion of valid cultural materials into a language program is one answer to the problem of joining language and area interests. The area teacher also helps by:

a. assigning readings in foreign languages to all students capable of reading them
b. using as many foreign terms as he can in his lectures and discussions without becoming bizarre
c. relating area matters to language.

The development of language courses at intermediate or advanced levels which tie in directly with an integrated area course has not been tried, but would constitute a real effort at integrating growth of knowledge of a foreign area.

Finally, the development of a language program has in rare instances outstripped the development of a strong area program. The cure here is so obvious that it need not be elaborated. The student who takes a summer language course which is truly intensive is usually unable to add an area course to his program, but in the academic year he is able to combine courses in language and area. Summer programs of somewhat *ad hoc* character, such as the Peace Corps, deliberately combine language and area work, in full knowledge that both are necessary in the training of the participants.

XII. *The physical environment*

In general the physical environment in which classes are held is good. The desiderata mentioned most often include:

a. air conditioning, installation of which would undoubtedly add greatly to classroom efficiency. In fact, the perspiring faces sometimes seen in the classroom suggests that intensive language courses might readily be given in summer camps set in pastoral surroundings
b. better acoustics in classrooms where either the instructor's voice or the voices of the students reverberate too harshly
c. placement in closer proximity to each other of offices, classrooms, the language laboratory, and the library, of which the first three in particular should be closely placed with respect to each other.

XIII. *Some ancillary problem areas*

1. Graduate versus undergraduate credit

Some language supervisors and many graduate students ask whether graduate credit might not be offered for intensive beginning courses. To be sure, the systems of writing for some of the languages of the world are exceedingly complex, but there seems to be no real justification for the granting of graduate credit for the first two years of language work, no more so for the critical languages than for the "alphabetical" ones of Europe. For certain languages, the texts are written in French or German, but even for these languages, many will be replaced by those now being prepared either under contract with the U.S. Office of Education or independently.

2. The foreign language requirement

The mere meeting of a language requirement is only an incidental reason for election of an "exotic" language. Since, in point of fact, the fulfillment of a language requirement rarely leads to effective speaking or reading knowledge, it cannot be equated with the kind of mastery which intensive courses, taken over a period of four or five semesters, might produce. The problem of the language requirement lies somewhat outside the purview of this report, but it seems worthwhile to record two attempts to require an effective reading knowledge. At one institution 3 semesters or 12 units of a single language must be elected in order to fulfill the language requirement. Proficiency examinations are given in order to place entering students (freshmen and transfer students) in the proper class. If they fail to place where they normally should (in terms of high school preparation, 2 years of foreign language are usually equated with one in college), they may not take any lower courses for credit.

At a second institution, each student must take a placement test and show competence equivalent to that achieved after 2 years' study in a college or university. If this proficiency is demonstrated, he then takes a literature course in order to complete his foreign language requirement. If the student shows 1½ years' proficiency, he takes the fourth semester language course and the literature course. All other students must complete four semesters of work in a foreign language. Possibly the only suggestion to make with respect to this set of requirements is to develop reading courses in the social and technical sciences in addition to the literature course.

XIV. *Conclusion*

We have tried to present in the foregoing discussion a résumé of practices and problems relating to intensive summer programs in the uncommon languages, as observed at the 22 institutions covered in our survey. However, this summation does not include all of the procedures followed by inventive supervisors who work outside these institutions. An interesting device reported from a school in Tokyo is perhaps best used in teaching Japanese. It consists in flashing on the screen the components of each sentence in a lesson, beginning first with the predicate (the verb, adjective, or specifier form) coming at the end of the sentence. Successive slides show the antecedent phrases along with the predicate, with each antecedent phrase closest to the predicate added in turn. As the slides change, the student reads everything that he sees on the screen. This insures reading the predicates most often. In having the students repeat the element which most teachers would regard as being most crucial in the interpretation of a Japanese sentence, the whole procedure suggests that it is possible to build up reading skills by giving pronunciation drills in the script.

A program is not necessarily a good one simply because it has attracted a large number of students. Unless the classes are handled with imagination, a large program may even bog down because of sheer numbers. But the intensive course which is small and contains students of varying abilities and interests is pedagogically difficult to handle. Courses depending on the continuous presence from year to year of a single instructor are particularly difficult to preserve, for he may easily be lured away to greener pastures. Local conditions will in some cases require the offering of courses to relatively few students. For the African and Southeast Asian languages, one or two centers should be supported regardless of the number of students that apply. But it seems unconscionable to subsidize an elementary course enrolling only a few students if a strong program, attended by a large number of students, is readily available. Although it is difficult to forecast the continuing needs for language personnel for even three years, a high premium should still be placed on quality programs, and some of the ingredients of a quality program are contained in the practices here reported from various universities.

Not every language and area center needs to be self-supporting. In many programs the larger enrollments in the elementary courses will carry financially the work at higher levels.

But the ratio of teachers to students in any course or section of a course in which the aim is to develop proficiency in the spoken language should ideally remain at about 1 to 8. When more than 10 students enroll in a class, not enough individual drill is provided; when too few are enrolled, competition and reinforcement both are missed in the learning process. Some would argue for a 1 to 4 ratio.

Classes containing 2 or 3 students should be permitted if the students demonstrate special interests. Even tutorials have their justification, in honors and advanced courses. The matching funds furnished under NDEA should in fact be sufficient to carry any program, provided the need and quality are there.

This suggests that the best programs might well be subsidized beyond the 50 percent which is now the limit as far as matching funds are concerned.

It is just possible that courses in which proficiency in reading is the objective may be less expensively given. Some of the teachers in such courses feel unencumbered even when 15 students comprise a class. On the other hand, the ability of a program to attract a large number of students usually means that it also attracts students at several levels of proficiency, and those at the higher levels would necessarily gather in smaller classes. It is possible to argue that there are too many intensive courses at the elementary level, and too few at intermediate and advanced. Ability to carry intermediate and advanced courses is in some cases evidence of the quality of a program.

One solution to the problem of providing top-flight instruction consists in establishing a summer program that is rotated among a number of participating institutions. Here the Near Eastern Program in which Harvard, Michigan, Princeton, Columbia, U.C.L.A., and Johns Hopkins, with Texas and Georgetown as associate members, are engaged serves as an interesting example, as do plans for a Far Eastern Institute projected by the Committee on Institutional Cooperation of the Big Eleven (consisting of the universities of the Big Ten Athletic Conference and the University of Chicago). Cooperation between Chicago and Wisconsin in teaching the languages of India may also be mentioned.

The concentration of intensive language programs at fewer institutions permits better use of faculty personnel. Cooperative effort by instructors drawn from several institutions will lead to mutual stimulation. The rotating summer program will provide opportunities to teach for those so inclined. Even language teachers can become fatigued from teaching and need periods of rest. But, as far as possible, supervision of a rotating language program should be centralized and a nucleus of teachers and drillmasters persuaded to teach at least two summers in succession, to provide the necessary continuity.

Still another solution to the problem of insuring the development of actual competences in a foreign language is suggested by the junior-year abroad and language-year abroad programs. These raise the question of the amount of language instruction which a student should receive prior to his trip abroad and the nature of his introduction to the discipline for which he is training when he has once arrived on a foreign shore. The establishment and maintenance of foreign centers geared to the special needs of the American student should continue to be encouraged. Problems of integration and articulation of programs will necessarily arise if several institutions participate, but need not be more difficult for the student than when he transfers from one institution to another. Integration with foreign institutions constitutes a second problem. Some kind of tutoring would seem useful to the student who, for instance, enters the halls of a foreign university after having received some amount of preparatory instruction in a center run by one or more American universities.

In the meantime the need to provide adequate training in foreign languages grows apace. Although decreasing enrollments have been reported in a few languages (Russian), the Sputnik wave promises to go higher, as will the increasing total tide of college enrollment. In such subjects as agronomy, poultry, and range management, the career opportunities abroad are now increasing much faster than are the corresponding domestic opportunities. Even those who are not students are studying foreign languages, in order to use these languages in their professions and vocations. The summer intensive language course is playing a crucial role in developing foreign language competence.

Appendix D

Report on Chicago Seminar of the Committee on Summer Programs in Connection With NDEA Language and Area Center Programs

August 1–2, 1963

Introduction

On September 10, 1962, the Office of Education announced that all summer programs supported under Title VI in the language and area centers program would include "at least one intensive elementary language course." While area work was not excluded, the emphasis was on language training. This action was intended to help NDEA language and area centers meet the growing needs of an ever-expanding and increasingly diverse group of students. While summer intensive language work was viewed in conjunction with academic year language and area studies, the emphasis on summer programs was strengthened by contracting for them on a separate and annual basis rather than on the continuing basis which has characterized the "regular" NDEA academic year language and area centers program.

Because of the marked contrast between the summer programs for 1963 and those of previous years, both as to content and size, and because of the ever-increasing relevance of such programs to language instruction for an expanding number of students, an *ad hoc* committee composed of NDEA center directors who visited certain of these summer programs was asked (a) to comment in general on those programs which they observed and (b) to draw such conclusions and make any recommendations on summer programs that would be significant and helpful in planning for the summer of 1964.

The Committee Members

The committe was composed of six NDEA center directors. The chairman was Professor Donald H. Shively, Director of the Chinese-Japanese Language and Area Center at Stanford University as well as of its summer program. Professor Shively visited similar programs at Harvard, Columbia, and Michigan. Programs at the last two named institutions were also represented by Professor Wm. Theodore de Bary, Director of the East Asian Language and Area Center at Columbia, and Professor Joseph K. Yamagiwa, Director of the Far Eastern Language and Area Center at the University of Michigan and also of the newly created Far Eastern (summer) Language Institute sponsored by the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC) representing the "Big Eleven." In cooperation with Hoenigswald, McCarus, and Noss, he wrote *A Survey of (22) Intensive Programs in the Uncommon Languages, Summer 1962.*

Professor John M. Thompson, Director of the Russian and East European Institute at Indiana University reported on the summer program in Slavic languages at Michigan as well as at Indiana. Professor John V. D. Saunders, Director of the Latin American Language and Area Center at the University of Florida, who had visited the two special NDEA post-doctoral programs, one at UCLA in Spanish and one in Texas in Portuguese, described those programs as well as the summer intensive language program in Portuguese at NYU.

Most of the members of the committee visited the South Asian language and area summer program at the University of Chicago where the meeting was held. This summer program was the second round of a joint program on South Asia sponsored by the Universities of California (at Berkeley), Wisconsin (on which campus the first program was held in 1962), and Chicago. Professor J. A. B. van Buitenen, Co-Director of the summer program, was also the committee's host. This particular program, offering nine courses in five Indian languages to a wide variety of students provided a unique example of summer programing including such features as (a) cooperation among three major Centers, (b) provisions for a wide range of students, and (c) offering an unusually large number of uncommon languages.

Also attending the seminar were Dr. Donald N. Bigelow and Dr. John Thompson of the Office of Education. All but 2 of the 24 summer programs being supported in part by the Office of Education had been visited by one or another of the committee members.

Conclusions

1. The committee was in agreement with the new policy of the Office of Education on summer programs as outlined in the memorandum of September 10, 1962 and as practiced by the various programs which were in operation during the summer of 1963. There is no question that these summer programs are making a substantial contribution to language and area study. It was agreed that such support as the Office offered was consistent with programs that were being planned or had already been undertaken by many centers. Such modifications of the original policy as were necessitated in order to strengthen summer programing were found to be compatible with the center program as a whole, neither interfering with nor disturbing existing academic year programs.

2. There was agreement that when a student took either an intensive elementary or intensive intermediate course in a language (requiring, usually, 15 to 20 contact hours per week), he would not have time to take an "area" course for credit. However, it was also said that some summer programs, particularly in certain world areas, were able to offer area courses to the advantage of the program as a whole. Again, there was explicit approval given to the requirement by the Office of Education, that at least one intensive elementary course should be offered at a summer program without any reference to whether or not area work would be included.

3. The extraordinary usefulness of summer programs which could reach, and often were already reaching, groups of students at different levels was stressed by the committee. It was generally felt that the diversity of students did not interfere with language learning. Summer work was indeed indispensable to the graduate student whose work in a given discipline is often seriously held up by

the need to master a language for which he has had no basic preparation. Ideally a summer intensive language course should be taken before graduate work commences. One language study plan which would serve the needs of many students is to begin with an intensive summer course, followed by a semi-intensive academic year course. The range of students for whom summer language courses are particularly useful includes: (1) faculty fellows and high school teachers; (2) students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels who, because of departmental or other requirements, could not devote adequate time to language study in the academic year; (3) students (whether graduate or undergraduate) whose home institutions could not provide advanced or even elementary work in the uncommon languages; and (4) students and faculty members needing preparation prior to going abroad but whose need, generally, is on an advanced level. Finally, it was pointed out that the summer provided an opportunity for those students who, having commenced the study of a modern language, did not wish to allow the intervening months to be a fallow period. For any student, summer study could be of value to speed the process of learning a language.

4. Articulation between the summer and academic-year language programs is possible when the summer course is sufficiently intensive to cover essentially the number of hours of classroom instruction (at least 150 hours) equivalent to what is given during the academic-year nonintensive course. Many of the problems encountered by directors of summer language programs are similar to those that they must contend with in academic-year courses, except that they are made more acute by the precipitate pace of the intensive summer course.

(a) Visiting students often have difficulty in adjusting to an intermediate or advanced course if the textbook used or the pace of the course was different at their home institution. It was suggested that a group of teachers of a specific language might move toward more comparable standards if they were to experiment with the development of language placement tests for the intermediate and advanced levels. This experimentation might best be conducted independently of the Office of Education.

(b) The quality of summer language instruction is a problem since many of the more able faculty members prefer to have summers free for research. This can result in a high proportion of visiting instructors and, with the increasing number of summer programs, a shortage of experienced or able teachers. While these and other problems do not negate the usefulness of summer programs, they should be recognized in order that solutions may be sought.

5. While some evidence existed that there was another aspect of placement, viz, the student's returning to his home institution after a summer's intensive work, it was felt that there were several ways of adjusting this situation. If there were enough such students, another section could be added; if there were few students, individual tutorial work could make adjustment possible. By and large, the problems of placement indicated a need for some common standards and/or goals in language learning.

6. The fellowship program of undergraduate awards for summer intensive programs which started in 1963 was praised by the committee. The seed value of few awards in attracting additional summer enrollment was commented upon; the psychological value of undergraduates attending a class was not overlooked since often they proved a spur to their seniors. The problem of identifying the

"advanced student" who, according to the act, is eligible for a fellowship, was discussed at some length. The committee felt that by restricting the definition of "advanced" to a student who had already had a year's work in a language (or its equivalent), the full value of this most happy addition to the NDEA fellowship program might not be realized. There were other undergraduates who, for one reason or another, the committee thought might be counted as "advanced" students, e.g. the undergraduate who had already acquired substantial knowledge of an uncommon language and wished to learn another which was culturally or linguistically related; or, the student who had made a considerable commitment to area work in a particular region but was without the appropriate language. Such examples led the committee to hope that some liberalization of the present rule might allow for a wider interpretation of "a year's work in a language," or its equivalent. The word "equivalent" certainly could be interpreted to the advantage of one of the most exciting developments in the whole field of language and area work whereby, at last, the undergraduate was given adequate assistance and official encouragement in preparing for graduate work in language and area programs.

7. The committee members suggested that the number of summer programs supported should not be increased too rapidly lest undue competition for the few specialists and the still limited student supply place additional obstacles in the way of achieving adequate standards. One answer was the joint programs in which summer programs were rotated on different campuses in alternate years (like Yale and Cornell in Southeast Asian languages), or on a 4-year basis (like the CIC summer programs), or once every third year (like Chicago-California-Wisconsin in South Asian languages), or a 6-year plan which has existed for the Middle Eastern field for the past 6 years. However, it was quite apparent that some summer programs were so located and so designed that rotation would not be a successful device and could not be considered.

In conclusion, the committee reiterated that it had no doubts about the conception and execution of summer intensive language programs as observed by them, and, furthermore, that language instruction remained the prime objective of such programs.

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September 16, 1963

Appendix E

Tables

Table 1.—Amount of Federal support to NDEA language and area centers, by sponsoring institution: Academic years 1959–60 to 1963–64

Institution (1)	Total (2)	Academic year				
		1959–60 (3)	1960–61 (4)	1961–62 (5)	1962–63 (6)	1963–64 (7)
Total	$8,555,660	$499,653	$1,575,000	[1] $1,851,007	[2] $2,110,000	[3] $2,520,000
The University of Ari-ona, Tucson, Ariz. (Prof. Earl H. Pritchard, director, Language and Area Center in Oriental Studies)	97,966		20,625	23,985	24,192	29,164
University of California, Berkeley, Calif. (Prof. John J. Gumperz, director, South Asia Language and Area Center)	222,980	17,244	47,009	51,097	51,315	56,315
University of California, Berkeley, Calif. (Prof. Francis J. Whitfield, director, East European Language and Area Center)	196,041	24,368	39,527	42,964	43,182	46,000
University of California, Los Angeles, Calif. (Prof. Benjamin E. Thomas, acting director, African Language and Area Center)	133,980		20,991	24,412	24,649	47,649 [4] 16,279
University of California, Los Angeles, Calif. (Prof. Henry J. Bruman, director, Latin American Language and Area Center)	101,127			[5] 20,000	[5] 40,000	41,127
University of California, Los Angeles, Calif. (Prof. Gustave E. von Grunebaum, director, Near Eastern Languages and Area Center)	191,820		43,663	47,460	47,697	53,000
The University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (Prof. Edwin McClellan, director, Far Eastern Language and Area Center)	133,280	31,714	21,700	25,237	25,317	29,312
The University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (Prof. George V. Bobrinskoy and Prof. J. A. B. van Buitenen, co-directors, South Asia Language and Area Center)	337,911	20,413	65,082	70,742	77,342	81,804 [4] 22,528
University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo. (Prof. S. Harrison Thomson, director, Center for Slavic and East European Studies)	129,132		24,797	28,839	29,008	[4] 31,008 [4] 15,480
Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (Prof. L. Gray Cowan, director, African Language and Area Center)	25,704					25,704

Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (Prof. Charles Wagley, director, Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies)	98,857			[5] 20,000	[6] 40,000	38,857
Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (Prof. Alexander Dallin, director, Soviet and East European Language and Area Center)	163,919		37,996	41,275	41,324	43,324
Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (Prof. Wm. Theodore de Bary, director, East Asian Language and Area Center)	165,276		22,509	27,379	43,283	48,851 [4] 23,254
Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (Prof. John Lotz, director, Uralic-Altaic Language and Area Center)	227,271	45,780	52,764	57,352	35,750	35,625
Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. (Prof. G. B. Kelley, director, South Asia Language and Area Center)	133,417		28,000	30,435	34,491	40,491
Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. (Prof. George McT. Kahin, director, Southeast Asia Language and Area Center)	243,111		50,000	54,348	63,424 [4] 6,916	68,423
Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. (Prof. Harold Shadick, director, East Asia Language and Area Center)	116,838		22,000	25,587	31,626	37,625
Duke University, Durham, N.C. (Prof. Ralph Braibanti, director, Center for Southern Asian Studies)	23,976					23,976
Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Pa. (Prof. Geza Grosschmid, director, African Language and Area Center)	83,212		15,634	18,182	20,889	24,742 [4] 3,765
University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla. (Prof. J. V. D. Saunders, director, Latin American Language and Area Center)	102,875			[5] 20,000	[6] 40,000	42,875
Fordham University, New York, N.Y. (Rev. Walter C. Jaskievicz, S.J., director, Russian Language and Area Center)	113,198		23,371	27,180	27,230	28,230 [4] 7,187
Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. (Prof. James R. Hightower, director, Language and Area Center for East Asian Studies)	278,858	46,010	49,379	53,650	53,650	63,630 [4] 12,539
Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. (Prof. D. W. Lockard, associate director, Center for Middle Eastern Studies)	298,666	37,487	52,577	57,149	57,149 [4] 18,558	61,919 [4] 13,827
Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. (Prof. Horace G. Lunt, director, Slavic Language and Area Center)	168,460		38,802	42,177	42,241	45,240
University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii (Prof. Ronald S. Anderson, director, Language and Area Center in Chinese, Japanese, Korean)	104,635		21,232	24,694	24,694	26,523 [4] 7,492
University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii (Prof. Ronald S. Anderson, director, Language and Area Center in Indonesian, Javanese, Thai)	63,047		10,350	12,033	18,259	22,405
Howard University, Washington, D.C. (Prof. Mark Hanna Watkins, director, African Language and Area Center)	43,600	4,886	8,091	9,410	10,388	10,825
University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. (Prof. Ralph T. Fisher, Jr., director, Center for Russian Language and Area Studies)	205,124		49,992	49,992	50,070	55,070
Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. (Prof. William B. Edgerton, director, Slavic Language and Area Center)	226,823		50,000	54,347	55,235	58,235 [4] 9,006

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 1.—Amount of Federal support to NDEA language and area centers, by sponsoring institution: Academic years 1959–60 to 1963–64—Continued

Institution	Total	Academic year				
		1959–60	1960–61	1961–62	1962–63	1963–64
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. (Prof. Denis Sinor, director, Uralic and Altaic Language and Area Center)	$33,497				$14,008	$18,002 [4] 1,487
State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa (Prof. Y. P. Mei, director, Chinese Language and Area Center)	50,835		$10,177	$11,812	11,923	16,923
The Johns Hopkins University School of Advanced International Studies, Washington, D.C. (Prof. Majid Khadduri, director, Middle East Language and Area Center)	57,931		12,559	14,606	14,606	16,160
University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans. (Prof. Thomas R. Smith, director, Center for East Asian Studies)	99,324	$9,315	14,015	16,300	18,558	27,742 [4] 13,394
The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. (Prof. Joseph K. Yamagiwa, director, Far Eastern Langugae and Area Center)	119,236		23,609	27,457	28,532	33,532 [4] 6,106
The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. (Prof. William D. Schorger, director, Language and Area Center for Near Eastern Studies)	131,024	11,981	36,590	28,095	24,134	30,224
The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. (Prof. John Mersereau, Jr., director, Slavic Language and Area Center)	356,277	39,670	70,419	76,543	76,617	77,000 [4] 16,028
Michigan State University, East Lansing, Mich. (Prof. Charles C. Hughes, director, African Studies Center)	153,932		25,759	25,759	41,942 [4] 14,603	45,869
New York University, New York, N.Y. (Prof. John Edwin Fagg, director, Portuguese Language and Area Center)	215,767	23,326	49,012	49,012	46,560	44,563 [4] 3,294
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. (Prof. W. Norman Brown, director, South Asia Language and Area Center)	347,472	44,625	72,162	72,162	73,632	78,632 [4] 6,259
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. (Prof. Alfred Senn, director, Slavic Language and Area Center)	179,880	22,849	38,964	38,964	39,032	40,071
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. (Prof. Yi-t'ung Wang, director, Chinese Language and Area Center)	93,582		17,934	20,857	24,396	30,395
Portland State College, Portland, Oreg. (Prof. Frederick, J. Cox, director, Middle East Studies Center)	117,922		25,019	29,097	29,300	34,506
Princeton University, Princeton, N.J. (Prof. T. Cuyler Young, director, Language and Area Center for Near Eastern Studies)	253,854	22,100	51,462	65,693	55,904	58,695
University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif. (Prof. Theodore H. E. Chen, director, Soviet-Asian Studies Center)	117,464		26,080	28,000	28,190	31,270 [4] 3,924
Stanford University, Stanford, Calif. (Prof. Donald H. Shively, director, Chinese-Japanese Language and Area Center)	229,943	24,916	40,360	43,870	49,124	57,624 [4] 14,049

The University of Texas, Austin, Tex. (Prof. Edgar G. Polomé, director, South Asia Language and Area Center)	51,674		10,344	12,028	12,145	17,157
The University of Texas, Austin, Tex. (Prof. Walter Lehn, director, Middle East Language and Area Center)	117,039		25,038	29,121	29,940	32,940
The University of Texas, Austin, Tex. (Prof. Fred P. Ellison, director, Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies)	98,040			[5] 20,000	[5] 40,000	38,040
Tulane University, New Orleans, La. (Prof. Bernard Gicovate, director, Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies)	103,459			[5] 20,000	[6] 40,000	43,459
University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah (Prof. Aziz S. Atiya, director, Middle Eastern Language and Area Center)	165,307		36,510	39,685	39,756	43,050 [4] 6,306
Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn. (Prof. Josef Rysan, director, Russian Language and Area Center)	121,375			40,065	40,155	41,155
University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. (Prof. George E. Taylor, director, Far Eastern and Russian Language and Area Center)	311,280	21,620	68,610	68,610	74,720	77,720
The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. (Prof. Richard H. Robinson, director, South Asian Language and Area Center)	196,223		40,791	44,338	44,428 [4] 14,741	51,925
The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. (Prof. Alberto Machado da Rosa, and Prof. Norman P. Sacks, co-directors, Language and Area Center in Latin American Studies)	219,419	24,765	32,810	35,654	[6] 65,705	60,485
Yale University, New Haven, Conn. (Prof. Karl J. Pelzer, director, Southeast Asia Studies Center)	182,800	26,584	30,685	33,353	39,470	43,574 [4] 9,134

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[1] $1,751,007 from fiscal year 1961 funds; $100,000 from fiscal year 1962 funds.

[2] $1,980,000 from fiscal year 1962 funds; $130,000 from fiscal year 1963 funds.

[3] Of the total of $2,650,000 from fiscal year 1963 funds, $130,000 was used for academic year 1962-63 as indicated in (2) above; of the remainder, $211,338 is committed to summer intensive language programs under separate contracts.

[4] Summer support.

[5] Funded from fiscal year 1962.

[6] Funded in part from fiscal year 1963.

Table 2.—Amount of Federal support to NDEA language and area centers, by State: Academic years 1959–60 to 1963–64

State	Total Federal support	Academic year									
		1959–60		1960–61		1961–62		1962–63		1963–64	
		Number of centers	Amount of Federal support	Number of centers	Amount of Federal support	Number of centers	Amount of Federal support	Number of centers	Amount of Federal support	Number of centers	Amount of Federal support
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Total	$8,555,660	19	$499,653	46	$1,575,000	52	$1,851,007	53	$2,110,000	55	$2,520,000
Arizona	97,966	----	----	1	20,625	1	23,985	1	24,192	1	29,164
California	1,193,355	3	66,528	6	217,630	7	257,803	7	284,157	7	367,237
Colorado	129,132	----	----	1	24,797	1	28,839	1	29,008	1	46,488
Connecticut	182,800	1	26,584	1	30,685	1	33,353	1	39,470	1	52,708
Florida	102,875	----	----	----	----	1	20,000	1	40,000	1	42,875
Hawaii	167,682	----	----	2	31,582	2	36,727	2	42,953	2	56,420
Illinois	676,315	2	52,127	3	136,774	3	145,971	3	152,729	3	188,714
Indiana	260,320	----	----	1	50,000	1	54,347	2	69,243	2	86,730
Iowa	50,835	----	----	1	10,177	1	11,812	1	11,923	1	16,923
Kansas	99,324	1	9,315	1	14,015	1	16,300	1	18,558	1	41,136
Louisiana	103,459	----	----	----	----	1	20,000	1	40,000	1	43,459
Massachusetts	745,984	2	83,497	3	140,758	3	152,976	3	171,598	3	197,155
Michigan	760,469	2	51,651	4	156,377	4	157,854	4	185,828	4	208,759
New Jersey	253,854	1	22,100	1	51,462	1	65,693	1	55,904	1	58,695
New York	1,503,358	2	69,106	8	285,652	9	332,568	9	370,604	10	445,428
North Carolina	23,976	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	1	23,976
Oregon	117,922	----	----	1	25,019	1	29,097	1	29,300	1	34,506
Pennsylvania	704,146	2	67,474	4	144,694	4	150,165	4	157,949	4	183,864
Tennessee	121,375	----	----	----	----	1	40,065	1	40,155	1	41,155
Texas	266,753	----	----	2	35,382	3	61,149	3	82,085	3	88,137
Utah	165,307	----	----	1	36,510	1	39,685	1	39,756	1	49,356
Washington	311,280	1	21,620	1	68,610	1	68,610	1	74,720	1	77,720
Wisconsin	415,642	1	24,765	2	73,601	2	79,992	2	124,874	2	112,410
District of Columbia	101,531	1	4,886	2	20,650	2	24,016	2	24,994	2	26,985

Table 3.—Amount and percentage of Federal support to NDEA language and area centers, by world area: Academic years 1959–60 to 1963–64

World area	Total		Academic year															
			1959–60			1960–61			1961–62			1962–63			1963–64		
	Federal support	Percent	Number of centers	Federal support	Percent	Number of centers	Federal support	Percent	Number of centers	Federal support	Percent	Number of centers	Federal support	Percent	Number of centers	Federal support	Percent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
Total	$8,555,660	100	19	$499,653	100	46	$1,575,000	100	52	$1,851,007	100	53	$2,110,000	100	55	$2,520,000	100
East Asian	1,489,773	17	4	111,955	22	11	263,540	17	11	300,828	16	11	335,295	16	11	478,155	19
Southeast Asian	488,958	6	1	26,584	5	3	91,035	6	3	99,734	6	3	128,069	6	3	143,536	5.5
South Asian	1,313,653	15	3	82,282	17	6	263,388	17	6	280,802	15	6	308,094	15	7	379,087	15
Middle Eastern	1,333,563	16	3	71,568	15	8	283,418	18	8	310,906	17	8	317,044	15	8	350,627	14
Uralic-Altaic	260,768	3	1	45,780	9	1	52,764	3	1	57,352	3	2	49,758	2	2	55,114	2
Asian-Slavic	428,744	5	1	21,620	4	2	94,690	6	2	96,610	5	2	102,910	5	2	112,914	5
Slavic and East European	1,860,229	22	3	86,887	17	9	373,868	24	10	442,346	24	10	444,094	21	10	513,034	20
Sub-Sahara African	440,428	5	1	4,886	1	4	70,475	4	4	77,763	4	4	112,471	5	5	174,833	7
Latin American [1]	939,544	11	2	48,091	10	2	81,822	5	7	184,666	10	7	312,265	15	7	312,700	12.5

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[1] Designated as Portuguese prior to 1962.

Table 4.—Critical languages offered at NDEA language and area centers, by center and support status: Academic year 1963–64

Center	Languages offered	
	With Federal support	Without Federal support [1]
(1)	(2)	(3)
The University of Arizona Language and Area Center in Oriental Studies.	Chinese, Japanese, Hindi.	
University of California (Berkeley) South Asia Language and Area Center.	Hindi-Urdu, Persian, Tamil, Telgu.	Sanskrit.
University of California (Berkeley) East European Language and Area Center.	Czech, Hungarian, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian.	Bulgarian,[3] Lithuanian, Slovak,[2] Ukrainian.[3]
University of California (Los Angeles) African Language and Area Center.	Afrikaans, Bemba, Chinyanja, Fulani, Hausa, Sotho, Swahili, Yoruba.	Bambara, Kikongo, Kpelle, Lonkundo, Luganda, Shona, Twi.
University of California (Los Angeles) Latin American Language and Area Center.	Nahuatl, Portuguese, Quechua.	Spanish.
University of California (Los Angeles) Near Eastern Language and Area Center.	Arabic, Armenian, Chagatai, Georgian, Hebrew, Kabyle, Kirghiz, Persian, Shilha, Tamazight, Turkish, Uigur, Uzbek.	Amharic, Aramaic, Coptic, Egyptian Hieroglyphics, Old Ottoman, Syriac, Ugaritic, Urdu.
The University of Chicago Far Eastern Language and Area Center.	Chinese, Japanese	
The University of Chicago South Asia Language and Area Center.	Bengali, Hindi, Munda, Persian, Tamil, Urdu.	Pali, Sanskrit.
University of Colorado Center for Slavic and East European Studies.	Czech, Hungarian, Polish, Russian.	Slovak [2], Ukrainian.[3]
Columbia University African Language and Area Center.	Hausa, Swahili	
Columbia University Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies.	Portuguese	Spanish.
Columbia University Soviet and East European Language and Area Center.	Czech, Russian, Serbo-Croatian.	Polish, Ukrainian.
Columbia University East Asian Language and Area Center.	Chinese, Japanese, Korean	
Columbia University Uralic-Altaic Language and Area Center.	Finnish, Hungarian, Minor Uralic Languages of the Soviet Union.	
Cornell University South Asia Language and Area Center.	Hindi-Urdu, Sinhalese Telugu	Pali, Sanskrit.
Cornell University Southeast Asia Language and Area Center.	Burmese, Indonesian, Javanese, Thai, Vietnamese.	
Cornell University East Asia Language and Area Center.	Chinese (Hokkien), Chinese (Mandarin), Japanese.	
Duke University Center for Southern Asian Studies.	Hindi-Urdu	
Duquesne University African Language and Area Center.	Hausa, Swahili	Arabic.
University of Florida Latin American Language and Area Center.	Portuguese, Spanish	
Fordam University Russian Language and Area Center.	Russian	Czech, Lithuanian, Polish.
Harvard University Language and Area Center for East Asian Studies.	Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Tibetan.	Mongolian.
Harvard University Center for Middle Eastern Studies.	Arabic, Persian, Turkish	Armenian, Hebrew.
Harvard University Slavic Language and Area Center.	Czech, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian.	Bulgarian.
University of Hawaii Language and Area Center in Chinese, Japanese, Korean.	Chinese, Japanese, Korean	
University of Hawaii Language and Area Center in Indonesian, Javanese, Thai.	Indonesian, Thai	Hindi, Javanese, Tagalog.
Howard University African Language and Area Center.	Swahili, Tswana, Yoruba	
University of Illinois Center for Russian Language and Area Studies.	Russian	Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Church Slavonic.
Indiana University Slavic Language and Area Center.	Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Ukrainian.	Czech.
Indiana University Uralic and Altaic Language and Area Center.	Estonian, Finnish, Hungarian, Korean, Turkish.	Mongolian, Uzbek, Other Uralic-Altaic Languages: Cheremis, Mordvin, Azerbaijani, Chuvash, Old Turkish, Yahut, Manchu.

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 4.—Critical languages offered at NDEA language and area centers, by center and support status: Academic year 1963–64—Continued

Center	Languages offered	
	With Federal support	Without Federal support [1]
(1)	(2)	(3)
State University of Iowa Chinese Language and Area Center.	Chinese, Japanese	
The John Hopkins University School of Advanced International Studies, Middle East Language and Area Center.	Arabic	Turkish.
University of Kansas Center for East Asian Studies.	Chinese, Japanese	
The University of Michigan Far Eastern Language and Area Center.	Chinese, Japanese	Indonesian, Thai.
The University of Michigan Language and Area Center for Near Eastern Studies.	Arabic, Persian, Turkish	Akkadian, Aramaic, Hebrew (classical), Hindi-Urdu, Sanskrit.
The University of Michigan Slavic Language and Area Center.	Polish, Russian	
Michigan State University African Studies Center.	Hausa, Twi, Yoruba	
New York University Portuguese Language and Area Center.	Portuguese	
University of Pennsylvania South Asia Language and Area Center.	Bengali, Hindi-Urdu, Marathi, Nepali, Tamil, Telugu.	Malayalam, Sinhalese [2].
University of Pennsylvania Slavic Language and Area Center.	Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Ukrainian.	Lettish, Lithuanian.
University of Pittsburgh Chinese Language and Area Center.	Chinese	Japanese.
Portland State College Middle East Studies Center.	Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, Turkish.	
Princeton University Language and Area Center for Near Eastern Studies.	Arabic, Persian, Turkish	
University of Southern California Soviet-Asian Studies Center.	Chinese, Japanese, Russian	
Stanford University Chinese-Japanese Language and Area Center.	Chinese, Japanese	
University of Texas South Asia Language and Area Center	Hindi, Telugu	Sanskrit.
University of Texas Middle East Language and Area Center.	Arabic, Hebrew, Persian	Akkadian, Armenian.
University of Texas Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies.	Portuguese, Spanish	
Tulane University Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies.	Portuguese, Spanish	
University of Utah Middle Eastern Language and Area Center.	Arabic, Persian, Turkish	Greek, Hebrew.
Vanderbilt University Russian Language and Area Center.	Russian	
University of Washington Far Eastern and Russian Language and Area Center.	Chinese, Japanese, Russian, Tibetan.	Bulgarian, Korean, Mongolian, Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Thai, Turkish, Vietnamese.
The University of Wisconsin South Asian Language and Area Center.	Hindi-Urdu, Kannada, Telugu	Pali, Sanskrit, Tibetan.
The University of Wisconsin Language and Area Center for Latin American Studies.	Portuguese, Spanish	
Yale University Southeast Asia Studies Center.	Burmese, Tagalog, Thai, Vietnamese.	Indonesian-Malay.

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[1] This column also includes ancient languages not regarded as critical.
[2] Instruction available on request.

Table 5.—Critical languages offered at NDEA language and area centers, by sponsoring institution: Academic years 1959–60 and 1963–64

Language (1)	Institution sponsoring center		Number of centers offering the language	
	1959–60 (2)	1963–64 (3)	1959–60 (4)	1963–64 (5)
Afrikaans		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Amharic		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Arabic	Harvard University. University of Michigan. Princeton University.	University of California (Los Angeles). Duquesne University. Harvard University. Johns Hopkins (SAIS). University of Michigan. Portland State College. Princeton University. University of Texas. University of Utah.	3	9
Armenian		University of California (Los Angeles). Harvard University. University of Texas.	0	3
Azerbaijani		Indiana University	0	1
Bambara		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Bemba		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Bengali	University of Chicago	University of Chicago University of Pennsylvania.	1	2
Bulgarian		Harvard University University of Washington.	0	2
Burmese	Yale University	Cornell University Yale University.	1	2
Chagatai		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Chinese:				
Hokkien		Cornell University	0	1
Mandarin	University of Chicago Harvard University. University of Kansas. Stanford University. University of Washington.	University of Arizona University of Chicago. Columbia University. Cornell University. Harvard University. University of Hawaii. State University of Iowa. University of Kansas. University of Michigan. University of Pittsburgh. University of Southern California. Stanford University. University of Washington.	5	13
Chinyanja		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Czech		University of California (Berkeley). University of Colorado. Columbia University. Fordham University. Harvard University. Indiana University.	0	6
Estonian		Indiana University	0	1
Finnish		Columbia University Indiana University.	0	2 1
Fulani		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	
Georgian		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1

Table 5.—Critical languages offered at NDEA language and area centers, by sponsoring institution: Academic years 1959–60 and 1963–64—Continued

Language	Institution sponsoring center		Number of centers offering the language	
(1)	1959–60 (2)	1963–64 (3)	1959–60 (4)	1963–64 (5)
Greek		University of Utah	0	1
Gujerati	University of Pennsylvania.	—	1	0
Hausa		University of California (Los Angeles). Columbia University. Duquesne University. Michigan State University.	0	4
Hebrew	Harvard University	University of California (Los Angeles). Harvard University. Portland State College. University of Texas. University of Utah.	1	5
Hindi-Urdu	University of California (Berkeley). University of Chicago. University of Pennsylvania.	University of Arizona University of California (Berkeley). University of California (Los Angeles). University of Chicago. Cornell University. Duke University. University of Hawaii. University of Michigan. University of Pennsylvania. University of Texas. University of Wisconsin.	3	11
Hungarian		University of California (Berkeley) University of Colorado. Columbia University. Indiana University.	0	4
Indonesian-Malay	Yale University	Cornell University University of Hawaii. University of Michigan. Yale University.	1	4
Japanese	University of Chicago Stanford University. University of Washington.	University of Arizona University of Chicago. Columbia University. Cornell University. Harvard University. University of Hawaii. State University of Iowa. University of Kansas. University of Michigan. University of Pittsburgh. University of Southern California. Stanford University. University of Washington.	3	13
Javanese		Cornell University University of Hawaii.	0	2
Kabyle		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Kannada		University of Wisconsin	0	1
Kikongo		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Kirghiz		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Korean	Harvard University	Columbia University Harvard University. University of Hawaii. Indiana University. University of Washington.	1	5
Kpelle		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Lettish		University of Pennsylvania	0	1
Lithuanian		University of California (Berkeley) Fordham University. University of Pennsylvania.	0	3
Lonkundo		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Luganda		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Malayalam		University of Pennsylvania	0	1
Marathi	University of Pennsylvania.	University of Pennsylvania	1	1
Mongolian		Harvard University Indiana University. University of Washington.	0	3
Munda		University of Chicago	0	1

Table 5.—Critical languages offered at NDEA language and area centers, by sponsoring institution: Academic years 1959–60 and 1963–64—Continued

Language	Institution sponsoring center		Number of centers offering the language	
(1)	1959–60 (2)	1963–64 (3)	1959–60 (4)	1963–64 (5)
Nahuatl		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Nepali		University of Pennsylvania.	0	1
Persian	University of California (Berkeley). Harvard University. Princeton University.	University of California (Berkeley). University of California (Los Angeles). University of Chicago. Harvard University. University of Michigan. Portland State College. Princeton University. University of Texas. University of Utah.	3	9
Polish	University of California (Berkeley).	University of California (Berkeley). University of Colorado. Columbia University. Fordham University. Harvard University. University of Illinois. University of Michigan. University of Pennsylvania. University of Washington.	1	9
Portuguese	New York University. University of Wisconsin.	University of California (Los Angeles). Columbia University. University of Florida. New York University. University of Texas. Tulane University. University of Wisconsin.	2	7
Quechua		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Russian	University of California (Berkeley). University of Michigan. University of Pennsylvania.	University of California (Berkeley). University of Colorado. Columbia University. Fordham University. Harvard University. University of Illinois. Indiana University. University of Michigan. University of Pennsylvania. University of Southern California. Vanderbilt University. University of Washington.	3	12
Serbo-Croatian	University of California (Berkeley).	University of California (Berkeley). Columbia University. Harvard University. University of Illinois. Indiana University. University of Pennsylvania. University of Washington.	1	7
Shilha		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Shona		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Sinhalese		Cornell University.	0	1
Sotho		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Spanish		University of California (Los Angeles). Columbia University. University of Florida. University of Texas. Tulane University. University of Wisconsin.	0	6
Swahili	Howard University.	University of California (Los Angeles). Columbia University. Duquesne University. Howard University.	1	4
Tagalog		University of Hawaii. Yale University.	0	2
Tamazight		University of California (Los Angeles).	0	1
Tamil	University of Chicago.	University of California (Berkeley). University of Chicago. University of Pennsylvania.	1	3
Telugu		University of California (Berkeley). Cornell University. University of Pennsylvania. University of Texas. University of Wisconsin.	0	5

Table 5.—Critical languages offered at NDEA language and area centers, by sponsoring institution: Academic years 1959–60 and 1963–64—Continued

Language	Institution sponsoring center		Number of centers offering the language	
	1959–60	1963–64	1959–60	1963–64
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Thai	Yale University	Cornell University. University of Hawaii. University of Michigan. University of Washington. Yale University.	1	5
Tibetan	Harvard University. University of Washington.	Harvard University. University of Washington. University of Wisconsin.	2	3
Tswana		Howard University	0	1
Turkish	Harvard University. Princeton University.	University of California (Los Angeles). Harvard University. Indiana University. Johns Hopkins (SAIS). University of Michigan. Portland State College. Princeton University. University of Utah. University of Washington.	2	9
Twi		University of California (Los Angeles). Michigan State University.	0	2
Uigur		University of California (Los Angeles)	0	1
Ukrainian		Columbia University. Indiana University. University of Pennsylvania.	0	3
Uralic-Altaic Group.	Columbia University	Columbia University. Indiana University.	1	2
Uzbek		University of California (Los Angeles). Indiana University.	0	2
Vietnamese	Yale University	Cornell University. University of Washington. Yale University.	1	3
Yoruba	Howard University	University of California (Los Angeles). Howard University. Michigan State University.	1	3

Table 6.—Number of area courses offered at NDEA language and area centers, by discipline: Academic years 1959–60 to 1962–63[1]

Discipline	Academic year			
	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62	1962–63
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Total	419	645	1,211	1,968
Anthropology and sociology	58	58	154	181
Economics	20	33	74	108
Education	6	6	11	30
General area	7	101	43	107
Geography	20	33	65	87
History	119	142	275	406
Law	1	0	3	13
Linguistics	23	27	50	160
Literature and the arts	77	122	331	605
Philosophy and religion	30	29	30	54
Political science and international relations	58	94	175	217

[1] Not including summer.

Table 7.—Number of area courses offered at NDEA language and area centers, by world area and discipline: Academic year 1962–63 [1]

World area (1)	Anthropology and sociology (2)	Economics (3)	Education (4)	Geography (5)	History (6)	Law (7)	Linguistics (8)	Literature and the arts (9)	Philosophy and religion (10)	Political science (11)	General Area (12)	Total (13)
Total	181	108	30	87	406	13	160	605	54	217	107	1,968
East Asian [2]	29	11	----------	21	116	----------	12	213	22	55	46	525
Southeast Asian	8	7	----------	3	11	----------	5	3	9	11	2	59
South Asian	49	17	10	4	20	1	31	30	12	21	12	207
Middle Eastern	10	13	----------	7	80	1	33	18	10	21	9	202
Uralic-Altaic	----------	----------	----------	1	10	----------	2	5	----------	----------	1	19
Slavic and East European [2]	12	33	8	18	92	5	55	195	1	62	12	493
African	40	4	9	9	21	----------	7	2	----------	12	13	117
Latin American	33	23	3	24	56	6	15	139	----------	35	12	346

[1] Not including summer.

[2] Courses in the Asian-Slavic area have been divided in the table between the East Asian and Slavic and East European heading and are thus included in the tabular totals

Table 8.—Amount and percentage of Federal support to NDEA language and area centers, by purpose: Academic years 1959-60 to 1963-64

Purpose	Academic year									
	1959-60		1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64	
	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Total	$499,653	100	$1,575,000	100	$1,851,007	100	$2,110,000	100	$2,520,000	100
Administration [1]	34,142	6.8	139,866	8.8	167,929	9	158,736	7.5	203,740	8.1
Language faculty [2]	151,634	30.3	513,465	32.6	634,217	34	474,267	22.5	556,541	22.1
Literature faculty	----	----	----	----	----	----	125,125	5.9	160,586	6.4
Area faculty	102,919	20.6	235,785	14.9	237,065	13	280,225	13.3	364,485	14.5
Native informants	----	----	----	----	----	----	124,512	5.9	156,877	6.2
Laboratory personnel	----	----	----	----	----	----	12,479	0.6	22,389	0.9
Library personnel [3]	64,391	12.9	256,185	16.3	267,293	14	161,559	7.6	171,426	6.8
Retirement	17,830	3.6	73,333	4.6	78,668	4	90,671	4.3	107,000	4.2
Language laboratories [4]	7,558	1.5	22,933	1.5	----	----	3,502	0.2	4,992	0.2
Library	----	----	----	----	----	----	126,118	6.0	135,920	5.4
Travel to area	28,508	5.7	60,251	4.0	53,592	3	52,512	2.5	46,009	1.8
Supplies, instructional materials, domestic travel [5]	8,017	1.6	13,414	0.8	----	----	27,365	1.3	36,834	1.4
Lectures and conferences	8,725	1.8	18,897	1.2	12,368	1	15,840	0.7	14,728	0.6
Indirect costs	75,929	15.2	240,871	15.3	399,875	22	457,089	21.7	538,473	21.4

[1] Included office supplies for the first 3 years.

[2] Included literature, faculty and native informants for the first 2 years; in 1961-62 included language laboratory, literature faculty, and native informants.

[3] Included library acquisitions for the first 3 years, 1959-62.

[4] Included language laboratory personnel, 1959-61.

[5] In 1961-62 domestic travel included in administration; instructional materials included in language.

Table 9.—Number of intensive summer programs supported by Federal funds at NDEA language and area centers, by world area: Summer 1960 [1] to summer 1964

World area (1)	Number of programs 1960 (2)	1961 (3)	1962 (4)	1963 (5)	1964 (6)
Total summer support	$38,478	$54,960	$140,144	$223,695	$249,234
Total number of programs	10	15	24	24	22
Programs by world area:					
East Asian	2	2	4	6	5
Southeast Asian		1	2	1	2
South Asian	3	3	3	2	3
Middle Eastern	1	1	2	2	3
Uralic-Altaic		1	1	1	(2)
Asian-Slavic		1	1	1	(2)
Slavic and East European	3	4	4	4	5
Sub-Sahara African		1	2	2	1
Latin American	1	1	5	5	3

[1] No summer programs were supported in 1959.

[2] Certain languages associated with these areas were offered at centers where area focus overlapped Uralic-Altaic or Asian-Slavic.

Table 10.—Amount and percentage of Federal support to intensive summer programs at NDEA language and area centers, by world area: Summer 1960 [1] to summer 1964

World Area (1)	Federal support to summer programs Total (2)	Percent (3)	1960 (4)	1961 (5)	1962 (6)	1963 (7)	1964 (8)
Total	$706,511	100	$38,478	$54,960	$140,144	$223,695	$249,234
East Asian	186,696	27	8,685	7,962	26,135	74,463	69,451
Southeast Asian	41,873	6		2,603	8,166	11,505	19,599
South Asian	104,109	15	7,094	11,778	24,368	28,787	32,082
Middle Eastern	100,170	14	9,010	9,789	19,258	20,133	41,980
Uralic-Altaic	5,460	1		828	3,145	1,487	
Asian-Slavic	7,764	1		1,920	1,920	3,924	
Slavic and East European	149,730	21	12,873	16,177	18,176	47,701	54,803
Sub-Sahara African	59,523	8		2,945	17,303	20,044	19,231
Latin American	51,186	7	816	958	21,673	15,651	12,088
Total Federal support for complete year			1,575,000	1,851,007	2,110,000	2,520,000	2,580,000
Summer support as percentage of support for complete year			2	3	7	9	10

[1] Original year of program support was 1959–60, but there is no record of direct support for summer 1959.

Table 11.—Federally supported summer intensive language programs,[1] by world area, sponsoring institution, languages offered, course level, number of contact hours, and credits given Summer 1964

World area and sponsoring institution	Duration	Languages offered [2]	Course level (1–4 years)	Number of contact hours (shown for elementary level only)				Credits (refer only to elementary level)		Number of area courses offered
				Weekly		Per session		Units	Equivalent academic year	
				Class	Lab	Class	Lab			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
East Asian										
University of Colorado [3]	June 13–Aug. 22 (10 weeks)	Chinese	1-2-3	15	10	150	100	10	1	5
		Japanese	1-2-3							
Columbia University	June 15–Aug. 21 (10 weeks)	Cantonese	1	15	5	150	50	8	1	9
		Chinese	1-2-3-4							
		Japanese	1-2-3-4							
		Korean	1-2							
Harvard University	June 29–Aug. 21 (8 weeks)	Chinese	1-2-3	15	2-6	120	16-48	8	1	1
		Japanese	1-2-3							
		Korean	1							
University of Hawaii	June 29–Sept. 4 (10 weeks)	(See Southeast Asian.)								
University of Southern California.	June 22–Aug. 29 (10 weeks)	Chinese	1-2	20	5	200	50	8	1	1+
		Japanese	2							
Stanford University	June 22–Aug. 15 (8 weeks)	Chinese	1-2-3	20	5	160	40	15	1	0
		Japanese	1-2-3							
Southeast Asian										
Cornell University [4]	June 17–Aug. 26 (10 weeks)	Indonesian	1-2	20	1	200	10	12	1	3
		Thai	1							
		Vietnamese	1							
University of Hawaii	June 29–Sept. 4 (10 weeks)	Indonesian	1-2	10	5	100	50	6	1	21
		Thai	2							
		Korean	1-2							
		Hindi	1-2							
		Chinese [5]	1-2-3-4							
		Japanese [5]	1-2-3-4							

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 11.—Federally supported summer intensive language programs,[1] by world area, sponsoring institution, languages offered, course level, number of contact hours, and credits given: Summer 1964—Continued

World area and sponsoring institution	Duration	Languages offered [2]	Course level (1–4 years)	Number of contact hours (shown for elementary level only)				Credits (refer only to elementary level)		Number of area courses offered
				Weekly		Per session		Units	Equivalent academic year	
				Class	Lab	Class	Lab			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
South Asian										
University of California at Berkeley.[5]	June 15–Sept. 4 (12 weeks)	Hindi-Urdu	1	15	5	180	60	8	1	17
		Hindi	2–3							
		Urdu	2							
		Bengali	[6] 1–2							
		Tamil	1–2							
		Telugu	1–2							
		Sanskrit	[7] 2							
Duke University	June 9–Aug. 21 (11 weeks)	Hindi-Urdu	[6] 1–2	12	6	132	66	8	1	2
University of Hawaii	June 29–Sept. 4 (10 weeks)	(See Southeast Asian.)								
University of Pennsylvania	June 15–Aug. 7 (8 weeks)	Hindi-Urdu	1–2–3	10	5	80	40	2	1	2
		Tamil	1							
		Sanskrit	1 [7]–2 [7]							
Slavic and East European										
Columbia University	June 15–Sept. 4 (12 weeks)	Polish	1	12½	0	150	0	8	1	7
		Russian [6]	1–2	13¾	0	165	0			
		Russian [6]	[7] 1–[7] 2–[7] 3							
Fordham University	June 22–Aug. 14 (8 weeks)	Russian	1–2–3	18¾	3¾	150	30	8	1	8
		Lithuanian [6]	[7] 1							
		Polish [6]	[7] 1							
Indiana University	June 17–Aug. 14 (8 weeks)	Polish	1	15	5	120	40	8	1	13
		Russian	1–2–3–4–5	15	5	120	40	9	1	
		Serbo-Croat	1							
University of Kansas [3]	June 8–Aug. 14 (10 weeks)	Polish	1–2	10	10	100	100	10	1	3
		Russian	1–2–3							
University of Michigan	June 22–Aug. 8 (8 weeks)	Polish	1	15	5	120	40	8	1	10
		Russian	1–2–3–4							

African										
Duquesne University[8]	June 8–July 31 (8 weeks)	Igbo	1	15	5	120	40	9	1	3
		Hausa	1–2							
		Swahili	1–2–3–4							
		Yoruba	1							
		Bambara	2							
Near and Middle Eastern										
University of California, Los Angeles.[9]	June 22–Aug. 14 (8 weeks)	Arabic	1–2–3	15	5	120	40	8	1	1
		Hebrew	2							
		Egyptian Arabic	2	12	4	96	32	6	1	
		Amharic	1–2							
		Persian	1–2							
		Turkish	1–2							
		Kabyle	1							
Harvard University	June 29–Aug. 21 (8 weeks)	Arabic	1–2	15	10	120	80	8	½+	3
		Syrian	2							
		Iranian	3							
		Modern Hebrew	1–2							
		Biblical Hebrew[6]	1							
University of Utah	June 20–Aug. 15 (8 weeks)	Arabic	1–2	15	5	120	40	15	1	4
Latin American										
New York University	June 15–July 24 (6 weeks)	Portuguese	[7] 1–2–3	15	5	90	30	6	1	0
Tulane University	June 15–Aug. 7 (8 weeks)	Portuguese	1–2	[10] 15	7	120	56	9	1	3
University of Wisconsin	June 22–Aug. 15 (8 weeks)	Portuguese	[7] 1–3	15	5	120	40	8	1	2

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[1] Students will include recipients of National Defense Modern Foreign Language Fellowships in the following categories:

a. Undergraduate—for langvage study (200 undergraduate awards)

b. Graduate—for language and area study (about 1,000 graduate fellowships)

c. Postdoctoral—for faculty to study certain uncommon languages in conjunction with academic-year work in a non-Western program.

Thirty-three languages will be offered.

[2] All courses intensive and federally supported unless footnoted otherwise.

[3] Joint program with the University of Colorado and the University of Kansas.

[4] In cooperation with Yale University, each offering programs in alternate summers.

[5] Inter-University Rotating Summer Program in South Asian Studies (the University of California at Berkeley; the University of Chicago; University of Wisconsin), also the University of Michigan and the University of Minnesota.

[6] Not federally supported.

[7] Not intensive.

[8] Third consecutive major summer program supported; earlier ones at Michigan State University and University of California at Los Angeles.

[9] In cooperation with the Inter-University Summer Program in Middle Eastern Languages, University of California at Los Angeles; Princeton University; Columbia University; the University of Michigan; The Johns Hopkins University (SAIS); The University of Texas; and Georgetown University.

[10] Contact hours include an integrated "area" course valued at 3 units.

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